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COLUMBUS BEFORE FERDINAND AND ISABELLA



THE LANDING OF COLUMBUS

GREAT EVENTS OF A GREAT NATION

FROM THE

Earliest Discoveries to the Present Time

INCLUDING

A COMPLETE ACCOUNT OF THE NORSEMEN; THE MOUND-BUILDERS
VOYAGES OF COLUMBUS; HARDSHIPS OF EARLY SETTLERS; FRENCH
AND INDIAN WARS; THE STORY OF CANADA,
MEXICO AND SOUTH AMERICA

The Struggle for Liberty in the Revolution

THE SECOND WAR WITH ENGLAND; PROGRESS AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE
UNITED STATES; THE GREAT CIVIL WAR AND THE
LATEST EVENTS IN AMERICAN HISTORY

TOGETHER WITH

A GRAPHIC ACCOUNT OF CUBA AND HAWAII

BY

HENRY DAVENPORT NORTHROP

Author of "Story of the New World," "War in Cuba," "Gem Cyclopedia," Etc., Etc.

SUPERBLY EMBELLISHED WITH PHOTOTYPE AND WOOD ENGRAVINGS

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111

111

PREFACE.

SAYS the old Roman, Cicero: "Not to know what has been transacted in former times, is to be always a child. If no use is made of the labors of past ages, the world must remain always in the infancy of knowledge." The same thought is well stated by an old English author: "History makes a young man to be old, without wrinkles or gray hairs, and gives him the experience of age, without the infirmities thereof."

This is not placing too high a value upon history, as will be admitted by all intelligent persons. And what history can be more important and valuable than that of America? The very name awakens a thrill of patriotic emotion. Her story is the most captivating ever written, and is an exhaustless source of instruction and entertainment. It should be familiar to both old and young, and may become so by a perusal of the comprehensive volume prefaced by these lines.

This work contains a full account of the Norsemen, the earliest discoverers of the Western world, and of the Mound-builders, the earliest inhabitants. It then takes up the story of Columbus—his long years of waiting and disappointment; his successful appeal at last to the King and Queen of Spain; his tempestuous voyage, attended by dangers of the deep and mutiny on board; his heroic courage, his splendid reception on his return, and then the dark days and sorrowful death of the great discoverer.

It treats of the settlement of America, and narrates the fascinating story of Captain John Smith and Pocahontas; the attempts of the Indians to destroy the Colonies; the disasters and sufferings encountered by the settlers. It details the persecutions of the Puritans in England, and their flight to Holland; the storm-tossed "Mayflower" voyaging to the "wild New England coast;" King Philip's war; the history of witchcraft in Massachusetts—that strange craze which resulted in the death of many innocent persons; the colonization of Connecticut; William Penn and the Quakers; settlement of the Carolinas and Georgia. Step by step the book traces the growth of the Colonies, their hardships and dangers, and the frightful massacres by the Red Men. It gives a vivid picture of the heroism and sacrifices which laid the foundations of our Great Republic.

A graphic account is given of that terrible ordeal through which the settlers passed, the French and Indian war, also of the uprising of an oppressed people; their heroic struggle for independence; exciting scenes and progress of the war; sufferings of the American army; darkest days of the conflict and final victory. Washington and his compeers stand out in bold relief and majestic proportions, as seen in the light of history. The war of 1812 with Great Britain and the Mexican war at a later period are fully related, and the growth of the nation is traced from small beginnings to its commanding position among the great and influential nations of the world.

Then comes a stirring account of the great Civil War; the attack on Fort Sumter; the country aroused; troops hurrying to the Capital; opening events of the war in Virginia; bloodshed in Missouri; campaign in Kentucky and capture of Vicksburg; battles of South Mountain, Antietam, and Gettysburg; Sheridan's raid; Sherman's great march to the sea; terrible battles in the Wilderness; Grant before Richmond; surrender of Lee's army and end of the great conflict.

The history of this great struggle is the most wonderful narrative ever penned. It is the story of the sublimest heroism ever witnessed, of the most thrilling adventure, of the loftiest patriotism, and of the most inflexible courage and determination. It is a story that should ever remain fresh in the minds of the American people, and its glowing details should be transmitted by them to future generations with patriotic fidelity.

All the events of our subsequent history are narrated, from the assassination of President Lincoln down to the present time, including the administrations of Grant, Hayes, Garfield, Cleveland, Harrison and McKinley.

Not the least interesting part of this work is the account it furnishes of Alaska, the history of that vast territory, its natural characteristics, its scenes of grandeur as well as desolation, its native inhabitants and their traits, and the discovery of gold at Klondike. This is followed by a most entertaining and instructive description of Mexico, that land of wonders, whose romantic history has an absorbing interest.

The volume is also enriched with a concise history of Cuba, its great struggle for freedom, its past attempts to throw off the Spanish yoke, and the scenes of bloodshed and ravages of war which have reduced the Queen of the Antilles to poverty and desolation.

The volume closes with very interesting information concerning Hawaii and the countries of South America.

CONTENTS.

CHAPTER I.

	PAGE
THE NORTHMEN	17

CHAPTER II.

THE FAMOUS MOUND-BUILDERS	25
-------------------------------------	----

CHAPTER III.

DISCOVERY OF AMERICA BY COLUMBUS	30
--	----

CHAPTER IV.

ADVENTURES OF DE SOTO AND OTHERS	44
--	----

CHAPTER V.

STORY OF SIR WALTER RALEIGH	52
---------------------------------------	----

CHAPTER VI.

CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH AND POCAHONTAS	59
---	----

CHAPTER VII.

STORY OF THE VIRGINIA COLONY	69
--	----

CHAPTER VIII.

THE SETTLEMENT OF MARYLAND	73
--------------------------------------	----

CHAPTER IX.

THE LANDING OF THE PILGRIMS	77
---------------------------------------	----

CHAPTER X.

KING PHILIP'S WAR	90
-----------------------------	----

CHAPTER XI.

PAGE

THE GROWING NATION 98

CHAPTER XII.

PENNSYLVANIA AND ITS FOUNDER 107

CHAPTER XIII.

WITCHCRAFT IN NEW ENGLAND 112

CHAPTER XIV.

COLONIES ON THE SOUTHERN COAST 118

CHAPTER XV.

STORY OF CAPTAIN KIDD 124

CHAPTER XVI.

THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR 130

CHAPTER XVII.

THE STORY OF CANADA AND QUEBEC 139

CHAPTER XVIII.

BEGINNING OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION 152

CHAPTER XIX.

PROGRESS OF THE WAR 163

CHAPTER XX.

THE AMERICANS RESOLVED TO BE FREE 176

CHAPTER XXI.

THE STRUGGLE FOR LIBERTY 189

CHAPTER XXII.

BATTLES AND SIEGES 201

CHAPTER XXIII.

PAGE

CLOSE OF THE WAR 218

CHAPTER XXIV.

THE NEW REPUBLIC 229

CHAPTER XXV.

OUTBREAK OF THE GREAT CIVIL WAR 261

CHAPTER XXVI.

CAMPAIGNS OF McCLELLAN AND LEE 275

CHAPTER XXVII.

IMPORTANT UNION SUCCESSES 289

CHAPTER XXVIII.

CAMPAIGNS OF SHERMAN AND GRANT 302

CHAPTER XXIX.

BATTLES ON LAND AND SEA 317

CHAPTER XXX.

SURRENDER OF THE CONFEDERATE ARMY 327

CHAPTER XXXI.

ASSASSINATION OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN 337

CHAPTER XXXII.

ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT GRANT 347

CHAPTER XXXIII.

ASSASSINATION OF PRESIDENT GARFIELD 356

CHAPTER XXXIV.

ADMINISTRATION OF GROVER CLEVELAND 370

CHAPTER XXXV.		AGE
ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT HARRISON		380
CHAPTER XXXVI.		
PRESIDENT CLEVELAND'S SECOND TERM		390
CHAPTER XXXVII.		
INAUGURATION OF PRESIDENT MCKINLEY		398
CHAPTER XXXVIII.		
ALASKA AND ITS GOLD-FIELDS		405
CHAPTER XXXIX.		
MEXICO AND THE MEXICANS		416
CHAPTER XL.		
CUBA AND HER STRUGGLES FOR FREEDOM		436
CHAPTER XLI.		
STORY OF HAWAII		463
CHAPTER XLII.		
COUNTRIES OF SOUTH AMERICA		475



LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS.

	PAGE
LIEF ERIC—A NORSE SEA-KING.	19
REMARKABLE MOUNDS AT MARIETTA, OHIO,	26
CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS,	31
COLUMBUS AT THE MONASTERY OF LA RABIDA,	32
LANDING OF COLUMBUS ON THE ISLAND OF SAN SALVADOR,	36
COLUMBUS RECEIVING NATIVES ON BOARD HIS SHIP,	39
NATIVES ASTONISHED AT AN ECLIPSE OF THE SUN,	42
FERDINAND DE SOTO,	47
SPANIARDS DESCENDING THE MISSISSIPPI,	48
SIR MARTIN FROBISHER,	50
SIR WALTER RALEIGH,	53
MURDER OF WHITE'S ASSISTANT BY THE INDIANS,	56
CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH,	59
POCAHONTAS,	61
CAPTAIN SMITH'S FIGHT WITH AN INDIAN CHIEF,	63
FLIGHT OF THE INDIANS AFTER THE MASSACRE,	66
THE ATTACK ON THE DOEG WIGWAM,	70
CECIL, LORD BALTIMORE,	74
MOCK SUNS, SEEN BY EARLY EXPLORERS,	75
THE "MAYFLOWER" IN PLYMOUTH HARBOR,	81
TREATY BETWEEN PLYMOUTH COLONY AND MASSASOIT,	83
TYPES OF NORTH AMERICAN INDIANS,	86
JOHN WINTHROP,	89
KING PHILIP,	90
ATTACK OF THE INDIANS ON BROOKFIELD,	93
INDIAN WEAPONS,	96
THE CHARTER OAK,	101
HENDRICK HUDSON,	102
PETER STUYVESANT,	105

	PAGE
WILLIAM PENN,	108
THE REV. COTTON MATHER,	114
GENERAL OGLETHORPE,	119
JOHN WESLEY,	122
DIGGING FOR CAPTAIN KIDD'S TREASURES,	126
EXECUTING NEGROES IN NEW YORK,	128
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN,	134
DISASTROUS DEFEAT OF GENERAL BRADDOCK,	137
GENERAL MONTCALM,	139
WILLIAM PITT, EARL OF CHATHAM,	141
GENERAL JAMES WOLFE,	143
WASHINGTON PLANTING THE FLAG ON FORT DUQUESNE,	144
DEATH OF GENERAL WOLFE BEFORE QUEBEC,	148
ATTACK ON THE FORT AT PRESQUE ISLE,	150
COLONEL BARRE,	153
JOHN HANCOCK,	155
SAMUEL ADAMS,	157
THROWING THE TEA OVERBOARD IN BOSTON HARBOR,	159
DEATH OF CAPTAIN DAVIS AT LEXINGTON BRIDGE,	161
CAPTURE OF TICONDEROGA BY ETHAN ALLEN,	164
GENERAL BURGOWNE,	166
BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL,	167
BUNKER HILL MONUMENT,	169
MEDAL IN HONOR OF THE RECAPTURE OF BOSTON,	173
SERGEANT JASPER AT FORT MOULTRIE,	174
SIGNERS OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE,	177
OLD INDEPENDENCE BELL,	178
RATTLESNAKE FLAG,	179
FLAG AND SHIELD,	180
AMERICAN MARKSMAN IN A TREE,	181
WASHINGTON CROSSING THE DELAWARE,	185
THE MARQUIS DE LAFAYETTE,	190
GENERAL BURGOWNE ADDRESSING THE INDIANS,	191
GENERAL HORATIO GATES,	193
BENEDICT ARNOLD AT THE BATTLE OF SARATOGA,	196

	PAGE
ATTACK ON CHEW'S HOUSE,	198
GENERAL ANTHONY WAYNE,	199
SEAL OF THE UNITED STATES,	202
DEATH OF COUNT PULASKI,	204
AN AMERICAN RIFLEMAN,	206
JOHN PAUL JONES,	207
MEDAL IN HONOR OF PAUL JONES,	208
DANIEL BOONE,	209
TARLETON'S LIEUTENANT AND THE FARMER,	211
BENEDICT ARNOLD,	214
MAJOR ANDRE,	215
ESCAPE OF BENEDICT ARNOLD,	216
LORD CORNWALLIS,	219
CONTINENTAL BILLS,	221
SURRENDER OF LORD CORNWALLIS,	224
ATTACK ON THE BLOCK HOUSE,	226
GEORGE WASHINGTON,	229
INDIAN CHILD IN CRADLE,	230
JOHN ADAMS,	231
THOMAS JEFFERSON,	233
JAMES MADISON,	234
A PIONEER HERO'S FIGHT WITH THE SAVAGES,	236
CAPTURE OF THE "GUERRIERE" BY THE "CONSTITUTION,"	238
THE "WASP" BOARDING THE "FROLIC,"	239
PERRY'S VICTORY ON LAKE ERIE,	240
JAMES MONROE,	242
JOHN QUINCY ADAMS,	243
HENRY CLAY,	244
ANDREW JACKSON,	245
DANIEL WEBSTER,	247
MARTIN VAN BUREN,	248
WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON,	249
JOHN TYLER,	250
PROFESSOR MORSE,	251
GENERAL SAM HOUSTON,	252

	PAGE
THE ANTI-RENT RIOT,	253
JAMES K. POLK,	255
LIEUTENANT GRANT GOING FOR AMMUNITION AT MONTEREY,	256
ZACHARY TAYLOR,	257
MILLARD FILLMORE,	258
FRANKLIN PIERCE,	260
JAMES BUCHANAN,	262
ABRAHAM LINCOLN,	263
JEFFERSON DAVIS,	264
GENERAL JOSEPH E. JOHNSTON,	265
GENERAL GEORGE B. MCCLELLAN,	267
IRON-CLAD GUNBOAT,	271
GENERAL W. T. SHERMAN,	273
GENERAL T. J. (STONEWALL) JACKSON,	277
COMMODORE DAVID G. FARRAGUT,	280
GENERAL ROBERT E. LEE,	284
BATTLE OF CHANCELLORSVILLE,	292
GENERAL GEORGE G. MEADE,	293
GENERAL PICKETT'S CHARGE AT GETTYSBURG,	295
LONGSTREET'S ARRIVAL AT BRAGG'S HEADQUARTERS,	298
WOUNDING OF GENERAL LONGSTREET,	308
BATTLE OF COLD HARBOR,	311
DEATH OF GENERAL POLK,	314
SINKING OF THE "ALABAMA" BY THE "KEARSAGE,"	321
GENERAL PHILIP H. SHERIDAN,	322
SHERIDAN'S CAVALRY CHARGE AT CEDAR CREEK,	324
THE PEACE COMMISSIONERS,	328
GALLANT DEFENCE OF FORT GREGG,	330
SURRENDER OF GENERAL LEE TO GENERAL GRANT,	334
THE GRAVE OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN,	341
CAPTURE OF BOOTH, ASSASSIN OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN,	343
ANDREW JOHNSON,	345
ULYSSES S. GRANT,	347
THE BURNING OF CHICAGO,	349
HORACE GREELEY,	350

	PAGE
ATTACK BY MODOCS ON THE PEACE COMMISSIONERS,	352
CENTENNIAL MEDAL,	353
MAIN BUILDING OF THE CENTENNIAL EXHIBITION,	354
RUTHERFORD B. HAYES,	357
JAMES A. GARFIELD,	358
JAMES G. BLAINE,	360
THE ASSASSINATION OF JAMES A. GARFIELD,	361
CHESTER A. ARTHUR,	366
THE BROOKLYN SUSPENSION BRIDGE,	368
GROVER CLEVELAND,	370
ADMINISTERING THE OATH TO PRESIDENT CLEVELAND,	371
COTTAGE IN WHICH GRANT DIED AT MT. MCGREGOR,	372
DEATH OF GENERAL GRANT,	373
GENERAL GRANT'S TEMPORARY TOMB,	374
LEVI P. MORTON,	378
BENJAMIN HARRISON,	380
SITTING-BULL IN HIS WAR-DRESS,	384
UNITED STATES BATTLESHIP "ILLINOIS,"	394
WILLIAM MCKINLEY,	398
MAP OF ALASKA,	406
FERNANDO CORTEZ,	419
SLAUGHTER OF NATIVE MEXICANS BY THE SPANIARDS,	422
EMPEROR MAXIMILIAN,	433
EMPEROR MAXIMILIAN SHOT BY MEXICAN TROOPS,	434
CITY AND HARBOR OF HAVANA,	438
GENERAL WEYLER'S TROCHA ACROSS CUBA,	450
TERRIBLE ERUPTION OF MAUNA LOA,	466
THE GRAND MAUNA LOA IN ACTION,	468

FULL-PAGE PHOTOTYPE ILLUSTRATIONS.

COLUMBUS BEFORE FERDINAND AND ISABELLA.
THE LANDING OF COLUMBUS.
THE LANDING OF ROGER WILLIAMS.
GENERAL PEPPERELL AT THE SIEGE OF LOUISBURG.
PATRICK HENRY.
PATRICK HENRY ADDRESSING THE VIRGINIA CONVENTION.
BATTLE OF BENNINGTON.
CARPENTER'S HALL, PHILADELPHIA.
GEORGE WASHINGTON.
PUTNAM'S ESCAPE AT HORSE NECK.
WASHINGTON CROSSING THE DELAWARE.
WASHINGTON REVIEWING THE ARMY.
GENERAL HARRISON AND TECUMSEH.
COMMODORE PERRY AT THE BATTLE OF LAKE ERIE.
DECATUR'S CONFLICT WITH THE ALGERINE PIRATES AT TRIPOLI.
HENRY CLAY.
ULYSSES S. GRANT.
CAPTURE OF NEW ORLEANS—FLEET PASSING FORTS ON THE MISSISSIPPI.
GENERAL GEORGE G. MEADE.
BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG.
WASHINGTON MONUMENT, FAIRMOUNT PARK, UNVEILED BY PRESIDENT MCKINLEY,
MAY 15, 1897.
THOMAS A. EDISON.
LAFAYETTE MEMORIAL.
GENERAL ANDREW JACKSON.
GENERAL WINFIELD SCOTT.
LINCOLN EMANCIPATION STATUE.
GARFIELD MEMORIAL.
GENERAL GEORGE H. THOMAS.
ADMIRAL DAVID G. FARRAGUT.
REAR ADMIRAL DUPONT.
UNITED STATES CRUISER "BALTIMORE."
UNITED STATES CRUISER "SAN FRANCISCO."
UNITED STATES CRUISER "NEWARK."
UNITED STATES CRUISER "COLUMBIA."
UNITED STATES CRUISER "PETREL."
UNITED STATES CRUISER "YORKTOWN."
UNITED STATES CRUISER "PHILADELPHIA."
UNITED STATES CRUISER "CHICAGO."

CHAPTER I.

THE NORTHMEN.

IT is now pretty generally admitted by intelligent historians, that America was discovered and colonized by the Northmen, some five hundred years before the time of Columbus. A recent American writer remarks that "the Northmen, at the time when the discovery is supposed to have been made, were the greatest navigators in Europe. During the two or three centuries preceding their discovery of America, they had spread themselves over all the islands of the British Archipelago, and had finally seated one of their princes, the great Canute, upon the throne of England. At about the same time, they conquered one of the finest portions of France, to which they gave their name of Normandy.

"When the Saxon blood temporarily regained the ascendancy in England, one of their chieftains, as if to vindicate the honor of the stock, crossed the channel from Normandy, crushed by a single decisive blow the feeble array of his competitor, at the battle of Hastings, and secured to himself and his posterity the British sceptre. Not content with these conquests, the Northmen entered the Mediterranean, took possession of Sicily and the northern coasts of Italy and Greece, and for a time gave law from the thrones of Jerusalem and Constantinople."

Among the achievements of the earlier history of the Northmen, were the colonization of Iceland, in the year 875, and that of Greenland, in the year 986. The leader of the colony which settled in the latter region was Eric *Rauda*, or *the Red*. He established his residence at a place which he called Brattalid. He bestowed upon the country the attractive name of Greenland—as a lure to emigrants, and his principal companions gave their names to their respective places of residence.

The colonization of Greenland by the Northmen was the event that led immediately to the discovery of America. Even before this time it was in no way improbable that some of their ships navigating between Norway, the British Archipelago and Iceland, all which countries were then in their

possession, should be driven out of their course by strong easterly winds as far as the coast of America. Some such accidents are, in fact, alluded to by the Icelandic writers, and others may have happened without leaving any trace in history.

But when the Northmen had extended their settlements to a point so near the American coast as Greenland, occurrences of this kind became almost matters of course. We find, accordingly, that the year succeeding their establishment in that country, is the one assigned by the Icelandic writers to the discovery of America. The account of the latter event as given by these writers is briefly as follows:

The Colony that Settled in Greenland in 986.

Among the companions of Eric Rauda, or the Red—the leader of the colony which settled in Greenland—was Heriulf, whose name is still attached to the southern promontory of Greenland, called by the English, Cape Farewell. Heriulf had a son named Biarne, who is represented in Icelandic chronicles as a young man of great merit. He had early engaged in commercial enterprises which had been attended with success. It was his practice to pass his winters alternately in foreign parts and at home with his father. In pursuance of this habit, he had passed the winter of the year, when his father emigrated to Greenland in Norway, and on returning home the next summer found him gone. He determined at once to follow, and, having obtained the assent of his crew, set sail without discharging his cargo, though unacquainted with the course.

After losing sight of land they met with northerly winds and fogs, and were driven about many days and nights without knowing where they were. When the fog cleared away they made sail, and the same day saw land. The coast was low and sandy, rising gradually into hills covered with wood. As it did not correspond with the description given of that of Greenland, they left it to larboard and steered a northerly course. After another day's sail they made land a second time. It was low and woody, as before.

They now put to sea again, and, after sailing three and a half days with a southwest wind, made land a third time. It proved to be a bold shore surrounded with ice, and on further exploration they discovered it to be an island. Once more leaving the land behind them, and pursuing their way to the north, after two days' and two nights' sail they made the southern cape of Greenland, where Biarne found his father.

The discoveries of Biarne naturally became a subject of much conversation in Greenland. At length Leif, a son of Eric the Red, the leader and chief of the colony, determined to undertake another voyage in the same direction. He accordingly purchased Biarne's ship, and engaged a crew of thirty-five men, including a German named Tyrker, who had lived from his youth in Eric's family.

The date of Liet's voyage is assigned to the year 1000. On leaving Greenland, he first made the land, which had been last seen by Biarne, and found it as described by him, a barren coast, rising into lofty mountains covered with ice and snow; the space between them and the shore being a naked rock, entirely destitute of herbage.

They now put to sea a third time with a north-easterly wind, and, after two days' sail, once more made land. There was an island near the coast, upon which they landed: the weather was pleasant, and the grass covered with dew, which, on tasting it, they found of a singular sweetness. They sailed westward, through a strait which separated the island from a promontory projecting northerly from the shore, and finally reached a place where a river, issuing from a lake above, fell into the sea. Here Leif determined to establish his colony, and having transported his effects, in boats, from the ship to the shore of the lake, he erected wooden huts for the temporary accommodation of his men.

Afterwards, when they had made up their minds to stay, they built larger houses, and called the settlement Leit's Budir or Booths. When the work of building was finished, Leif divided his men into two parties, one of which regularly kept watch at home, while the other explored the country, but not so far as to be away more than a day at a time. Leif himself alternately accompanied each of the parties. The chronicle here interrupts the narrative, to remark that Leif was a tall and robust man, uncommonly dignified in his personal appearance, and very prudent and judicious in the management of his affairs.



LEIF ERIC—A NORSE SEA-KING.

One evening, on the return of the exploring party, it appeared that the German, Tyrker, was missing. Leif was much alarmed at this, and set forth with twelve men in search of him; but had not proceeded far when he met him returning. He gave as a reason for his delay that he had been gathering grapes, of which he had found a great abundance. This was a fruit unknown to the Northmen, but with which and its uses Tyrker, as a German, was acquainted. In consequence of this discovery, Leif gave to the country the name of Wineland, to which his countrymen seem to have subsequently added the epithet *Good*, as it is generally mentioned in the chronicles, under the name of WINELAND THE GOOD. The men now employed themselves alternately in gathering grapes and in cutting wood, with which they loaded the ship. The river abounded with fish, and particularly salmon of a large size.

Leif Eric Returns to Greenland.

On the shortest day of the year, according to the chronicle, the sun rose at half-past seven o'clock in the morning, and set at half-past four in the evening. This occurs about the latitude of Cape Cod, so that if the record can be depended on, there is no doubt of the identity of Wineland with Massachusetts and Rhode Island. It is proper to add, however, that the meaning of this passage is a matter of dispute among the learned. The following spring, Leif set sail, with his cargo of wood, and arrived safely in Greenland, having on his way rescued fifteen shipwrecked mariners, from a rock near the coast. His father Eric died the same year, and Leif took no further share in the exploration of the new-found territory.

The numerous discoveries of Leif, of course, increased the interest that had been excited in Greenland by those of Biarne. Some time in the following year, 1001, Thorwald, a brother of Leif, determined to explore still farther the new-found region, and borrowing Leif's ship for the purpose, set sail upon the expedition. He arrived, without any particular adventure, at Leif's Booths, where he passed the winter, employing his company chiefly in fishing. In the spring, Thorwald despatched a party of men in the boat, to explore the country to the southwest. They found it beautiful and well wooded, with but little interval between the woods and the sea, which abounded in islands and shallows. They saw no traces of human habitation, excepting a wooden shed upon one of the islands. The party returned in the autumn to Leif's Booths.

In the following spring (1002), Thorwald sailed eastward in the ship, and finally doubled a cape, upon which he was afterwards shipwrecked. To this cape he gave the name of Keel Cape. It is supposed by the Danish Society to be Cape Cod, which in fact bears some resemblance, in the general outline, to the keel of a ship. After repairing his vessel, Thorwald pursued his course to the west, until he reached a promontory covered with wood, which he thought so beautiful that he determined to make it the seat of his settlement. At this place the Northmen found three canoes, each having on board three of the natives. A skirmish ensued, in which eight of the natives were killed: the ninth escaped, and soon after returned with an accession of force.

Leader of the Expedition Mortally Wounded.

Another engagement then took place, which terminated in the retirement of the natives. In the course of it, however, Thorwald, the leader of the expedition, received a mortal wound under the arm from an arrow. He summoned his followers around him, and inquired whether any of them were wounded, to which they all replied in the negative. "As for me," continued Thorwald, "I have received a wound under the arm from an arrow, and I feel that it will be mortal. I advise you to prepare immediately for your return; but ye shall first carry my body to the promontory which I thought so beautiful, and where I had determined to fix my residence. It may be that it was a prophetic word which fell from my lips, about my abiding there for a season. There shall ye bury me, and ye shall plant a cross at my head, and another at my feet, and ye shall call the name of the place *Krossanes*—Cape Cross—through all future time."

Thorwald died, as he anticipated, of his wound, and was buried by his companions in the manner which he had directed. On the return of the expedition to Greenland, Thorstein, a third son of Eric, determined to proceed to Wineland, and bring back his brother's body. He accordingly fitted out the same ship, with a crew of twenty-five men; taking also with him his wife Gudrida. This voyage proved an unsuccessful one. They were tossed about all summer without knowing where they were, until at the opening of the winter they finally reached Greenland.

In the course of the following year (1006), there arrived in Greenland two ships from Iceland, one of which was commanded by Thorfinn, who was very significantly called *Karlsefne*, that is, a man of promise. He

was a wealthy and powerful person of illustrious lineage, being descended from Norwegian, Danish, Swedish, Scotch and Irish ancestors; some of whom were kings, or of royal descent. He was accompanied by Snorre Thorbrandson, also a person of distinction in Iceland. They remained in Greenland through the year, and kept the festival of Yule, or Christmas, at Brattalid, the residence of Eric, who was now dead. During the winter, Thorfinn became enamored of Gudrida, the widow of Thorstein, and obtained the consent of Leif to marry her.

Expedition of Thorfinn from Greenland.

The discovery and exploration of the new-found region of *Wineland the Good* were still the principal subjects of conversation in the family. Thorfinn was strongly urged by his wife, and other friends, to undertake a voyage in that direction, which he finally determined to do. Accordingly, the following spring (1007), he fitted out an expedition, composed of three ships, carrying a hundred and forty men. He took the command himself of one of the vessels, on board of which he was accompanied by his wife Gudrida and his friend Snorre. One of the other ships was commanded by Biarne Grimolfson, of Breidefiord, and Thorhall Gamlason, of Austfiord, in Iceland. The third belonged to Thorwald, who had married a daughter of Eric. With this little fleet, about equal in force to that with which Columbus made his first voyage, Thorfinn set sail from Greenland.

After landing at Helluland and Markland, he proceeded on a southwest course, having the land on his right, until he came to Keel Cape. This Cape is described in the chronicle of his voyage as consisting of unexplored deserts, skirted by a long, sandy shore. Here the navigators remained a few days, and made some slight exploration of the country; in the course of which they found grapes and wheat growing wild. They then continued their course, until they came to a frith or inlet at the entrance of which was an island.

They found the island frequented by such an immense number of birds, that it was hardly possible to walk, without treading upon their eggs. Here Thorfinn landed, and fixed his residence for the winter. The following spring Thorhall set forth with eight of the men, in search of Wineland, but was driven by westerly gales across the ocean, upon the coast of Ireland, where they were made slaves. Thorfinn with the rest of the company took the other direction, to the southwest, and soon reached Leif's Booths, which

were situated, as has been seen, on the shore of a lake that discharged its waters into the ocean, through a river. Thorfinn gave to the lake the name of Hop—equivalent to haven or bay. He found wheat growing wild on the low grounds, and vines on the hills.

Friendly Visits from the Natives.

The Northmen erected additional dwelling-houses at a little distance from the bay, and passed the winter at this place. The climate appeared to them, as it had to Leif and his company, extremely mild. No snow fell, and the cattle were kept out at pasture through the winter. Early in the spring the settlement was visited by the natives in canoes, who carried on a friendly intercourse with the Northmen, exchanging furs for milk-soup and cloth. About this time Gudrida, the wife of Thorfinn, gave birth to a son, who was named Snorre. At the opening of the following winter the natives appeared again, in greater numbers, and with hostile intentions. A skirmish ensued, in which some of the Northmen were killed, but in which the natives were finally repulsed, not without the active interference of the Northern women, and particularly Freydisa. The hostile disposition shown by the natives, seems to have satisfied the Northmen that the country, notwithstanding its natural advantages, would be an uncomfortable residence. They accordingly determined to abandon the idea of a settlement, and prepare for returning to Greenland. The following Spring (1011), after a three years' abode, they took their departure from Wineland, and having taken on board some of the natives, arrived safely in Greenland.

Such are the principal particulars given in the chronicles of the most important expedition which was ever fitted out by the Northmen for the exploration of the new-found region. It appears to have resulted in the abandonment, by those who were engaged in it, of the plan of establishing a colony, on account of the ferocious character of the natives. On his return to Greenland, Thorfinn engaged in trading expeditions to Norway, and in 1015 purchased an estate in Iceland, where he passed the remainder of his life. His son, Snorre, who was born in Wineland, succeeded him in the estate and became a person of high consideration in the country. On the marriage of Snorre, his mother, Gudrida, made a pilgrimage to Rome, and after her return retired to a convent for the rest of her life.

A numerous and illustrious progeny descended from Thorfinn, through

his American born son, Snorre, among whom may be mentioned Bishop Thorlak (a grandson of Snorre, by his daughter Elfrida), who was the author of the oldest work on the ecclesiastical law of Iceland, published in 1123. To him we are probably indebted for the accounts of the voyages of his ancestors to Wineland. The record of the several generations of this remarkable family has been continued unbroken up to the present day.

Disastrous End of an Expedition.


Subsequently to the great expedition of Thorfinn, there are very few particulars mentioned in the Icelandic writers respecting the new-found regions. These appear to have been pretty soon virtually abandoned, and finally almost forgotten. The same year, however (1011), in which Thorfinn returned, Freydisa, who had accompanied him, fitted out a single ship, in which she sailed herself, in company with two Norwegians, Helge and Finnboge, recently arrived in Greenland, a crew of about thirty-five men and a number of women. She returned the next year, without having attempted a settlement, and her companions are represented as having destroyed each other in private quarrels.

In 1026 an Icclander named Gudleif embarked for Dublin. The vessel being driven out of her course, came near what is supposed to be the American shore, where the crew were seized by the natives and carried into the interior. Here they were accosted by a venerable chief, who addressed them in their own language, and inquired after several persons in Iceland. He refused to tell his name; but as he sent a present of a gold ring to Thurida, the sister of Snorre Gode, and a sword to her son, he was supposed to be Biorne the Bard, who had been her lover, who had left Iceland in the year 998.

After this period we have but few and scattered notices of the colony of the Northmen in America. The conquests of this enterprising people in the southern parts of Europe are sufficient to account for their abandonment, not only of the colony on the shores of Rhode Island and Massachusetts, but of the larger and older colony of Greenland. It suited their warlike propensities better to make descents on the shores of England, France and Italy, than to cultivate their distant colonies on the comparatively inhospitable shores of North America.

CHAPTER II.

THE FAMOUS MOUND-BUILDERS.

HAT North America was at some remote period occupied by a more civilized and powerful race than the Indians, found by the first explorers, is very certain. But who they were, what was their history, or what the cause of their extinction, are among the profoundest mysteries of the past. Traces as distinct as those which mark the various physical changes which the continent has undergone, exist to show that these primitive inhabitants were both numerous and far advanced in civilization; but this is all that we know concerning them.

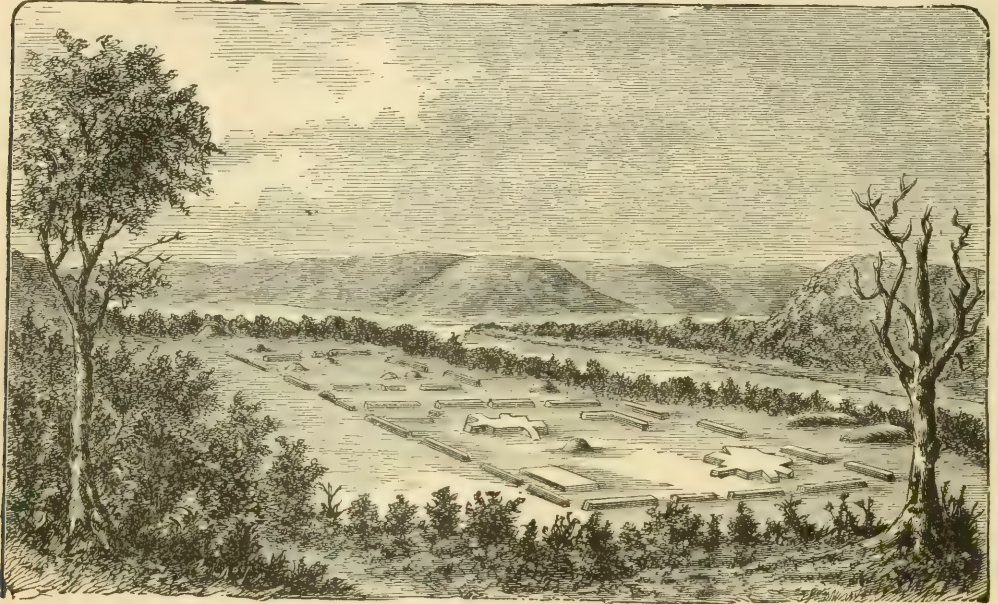
In various parts of the country, and especially in the valley of the Mississippi, large mounds and other structures of earth and stone, but chiefly of earth, remain to show the magnitude of the works constructed by these people, to whom the name "Mound-Builders" is generally applied. Some of these earthworks embrace as much as fifteen or sixteen miles of embankment. Indeed, their size, as well as their form and arrangement, is one of their most remarkable characteristics.

As no domestic animals existed in this country at that period, these works must have been constructed by bringing the earth used in them by hand; a fact which shows that the primitive population was a large one. The construction of the works proves that they had considerable engineering skill. The square, the circle, the ellipse, and the octagon are all used in these structures, being all combined in a single system of works in some places. The proportions are always perfect. The square is always a true square, and the circle a true circle.

Many implements and ornaments of copper, silver and precious stones—such as axes, chisels, knives, bracelets, beads, and pieces of thread and cloth, and well-shaped vases of pottery have been found in these mounds, and show the extent of the civilization of the "Mound-Builders" and their knowledge of the arts.

In the region of Lake Superior are found old copper mines worked by

these ancient people. In one of these mines there was discovered an immense block of copper weighing nearly six tons. It had been left in the process of removal to the top of the mine, nearly thirty feet above, and was supported on logs of wood which were partly petrified. The stone and copper tools used by the miners were discovered lying about as they had been left by their owners ages before. At the mouth of this mine are piles of earth thrown out in digging it, and out of these embankments trees are growing which are nearly four hundred years old.



REMARKABLE MOUNDS AT MARIETTA, OHIO.

The following interesting account of the mounds and their builders is from the pen of Mr. J. H. Beadle, who has made a special study of this subject: A people for whom we have no name, vaguely included under the general term of Mound-Builders, have left evidences of extensive works in the vicinity of the Mississippi and Ohio Rivers and their tributaries. These are of three kinds: mounds, square and circular inclosures, and raised embankments of various forms. Of mounds the following are most important and best known: One at Grave Creek, West Virginia, seventy feet high and one thousand feet in circumference at the base; one near Miamisburg, Ohio, sixty-eight feet high and eighty hundred and fifty-two feet in circumference; the great truncated pyramid at Cahokia, Illinois, seven hundred feet long, five hundred wide, and ninety in height; the im-

mense square mound, with face of one hundred and eighty feet, at Marietta, Ohio; and some hundreds of inferior mounds from sixty to thirty feet in height, in different States, from Wisconsin to the mouth of the Mississippi.

Unlike all the mounds in Mexico and Central and South America, those in our country have no trace of buildings on them. Why? Until I visited Arizona I had no answer. There the solution was easy. In those regions stone was abundant, and timber was scarce; here the reverse was the case. Our predecessors built of wood, the others of stone; the works of the latter remain to this day, while wooden buildings would leave no trace after one or two centuries. if indeed they were not burnt by the savages as soon as abandoned.

Great Number of Mounds in Ohio.

Of the second class the best known are: the square fortification at Cedar Bank, Scioto River, Ohio, with face of 800 feet, inclosing a mound 245 feet long by 150 broad; the works four miles north of Chillicothe, Ohio, a square and a circular fortification inclosing twenty acres each; the graded way near Piketon, Ohio; about a hundred mounds and inclosures in Ross County, Ohio; the pyramid at Seltzertown, Mississippi, 600 feet long and 40 feet high, and a vast number of mounds, inclosures, squares and pyramids on the upper lakes, and scattered through the Southern and Western States. Every State in this great region contains these structures.

By far the greatest division is in Central and South America; and here we find ourselves at the point where our ancient civilization reached its height, among works which are the astonishment of explorers and perplexity of scholars. Yucatan is a vast field for antiquarian research, dotted from one end to the other with the ruins of cities, temples and palaces. But in the great forest which covers the northern half of Guatemala, the southern half of Yucatan, and parts of other States, covering an area larger than Ohio, is to be found the key to our ancient history. Within a few years past cities have been discovered which must have contained a population of a quarter of a million, in an advanced condition of civilization; and yet, owing to the jealousy of the natives and the indifference of modern scholars, next to nothing is known, and few scientific researches have been made upon this intensely interesting subject. In my limited space I confine this inquiry to the remains in our own country. From what we see in the West and South, the following conclusions are evident:

1. The Mound Builders constituted a considerable population, under one government. No wandering and feeble tribes could have erected such works; and the extent of the works, evidently many years in erection, as well as their completeness and scientific exactness, show the controlling energy of one directing central power, which alone can account for their uniform character.

2. They were an agricultural people. The barbarous state requires many times as large an area for the same number of people as the civilized state; and the savage condition a much larger. The State of Ohio will support an agricultural population of many millions; yet it never contained fifty thousand savages. It is easily proven that that portion of the United States east of the Mississippi never contained half a million Indians. It follows, also, that a very large portion of the country around their works must have been cleared of timber and in cultivated fields.

Forest Trees which are the Growth of Centuries.

3. They left our country a long time ago. Nature does not give a forest growth at once to abandoned fields; a preparatory growth of shrubs and softer timber comes first. But forest trees have been found upon the summit of their mounds, which show, by annual rings and other signs, at least six hundred years of growth. There could be no better proof of their great antiquity.

Their works are never found upon the lowest terrace of the formation on the rivers; though many signs indicate that they built some as nearly on a level with the streams as possible. Their "covered ways," leading down to water, now terminate on the second terrace above. It is demonstrable that of the various terraces—"second bottoms"—on our streams, the lowest was longest in forming. From these and many other signs, it is proved that the last of the Mound Builders left the Ohio valley at least a thousand years ago.

4. They occupied the country, at least the southern part of it, where their population was densest, a very long time. This is shown by the extent of their works, the evidences of their working the copper-mines of the Superior region, and many other proofs. The best judges estimate that nearly a thousand years elapsed from the time of their entrance till their departure from the Mississippi valley.

5. At the south they were at peace; but as they advanced northward,

they came more and more into contact with the wild tribes, before whom they finally retired—again towards the south. These facts are clearly proved by the increase of fortifications northward, and broad flat mounds, suitable only for building, southward.

So much for proof; and, connecting these with other proofs, the latest antiquarians are of the opinion that the Toltecs—the civilized race preceding the Aztecs—were our Mound-Builders.

Immense Forest in Central America.

When we pass to the more southern ruins the proofs of great antiquity, large population and long occupation are vastly increased. Some of them have been alluded to. The great forest of Guatemala and Yucatan is nearly as large as Ohio and Indiana combined, and could easily have sustained a civilized population of ten millions. The Aztecs, whom the Spaniards found, were the last of at least three civilized races, and much inferior to the Toltecs immediately preceding them. Their history indicates that they were merely one of the original races, who overthrew and mingled with the Toltecs, adopting part of their religion and civilization. The Peruvian Incas, found by Pizarro, seemed to have been the second in the series of races. But civilization is not spontaneous; it must have required nearly a thousand years for the first of the three dynasties to have developed art and learning far enough to erect the buildings we find.

Thus we have the series: A thousand years since the Mound Builders left our country; a previous thousand years of settlement and occupation, and a thousand years for the precedent civilization to develop. Or, beginning in Mexico, etc.: a thousand years of Spaniard and Aztec; a previous thousand years for Toltec migration and settlement, and a thousand years before that for the Colhuas to develop, flourish and decline. This carries us back to the time when the same course of events was inaugurated on the Eastern Continent. We know that it has required so long to produce all we see in Europe and Asia; all reasoning, by analogy, goes to show that at least as long a time has been required to produce equally great evidences in America.

CHAPTER III.

DISCOVERY OF AMERICA BY COLUMBUS.

COLUMBUS, notwithstanding the discovery of America by the Northmen, deserves as much credit for his noble enterprise, as though the continent had never been previously visited by any European. He was probably ignorant of what had been done by the Northmen, or if he acquired any knowledge of their discoveries, it is not probable that he would ever imagine there was any connection between the inhospitable countries which they described and the luxuriant Indies which he sought.

Christopher Columbus was born at Genoa in 1441. It has been asserted that his origin was humble. This is of the least possible consequence, or it would not be difficult to produce evidence that he was well descended. He studied awhile at Pavia, but quitted the university at an early period to follow a maritime life. Between thirty and forty years were spent in voyages to various parts of the world, during which geometry, astronomy and cosmography occupied much of his attention. At length he settled at Lisbon, where he married the orphan daughter of Palestrello, an Italian navigator.

From a long and close application to the study of geography and navigation, Columbus had obtained a knowledge of the true figure of the earth, much superior to the general notions of the age in which he lived. In order that the globe might be properly balanced, and the lands and seas proportioned to each other, he accordingly was led to conceive that another continent was necessary. Other reasons induced him to believe that this continent was connected with the East Indies. As early as the year 1474, he communicated his ingenious theory to Paul, a physician of Florence, eminent for his knowledge of geography. He warmly approved it, and encouraged Columbus in an undertaking so laudable, and which promised so much benefit to the world.

Having fully satisfied himself with respect to the truth of his system, he became impatient to reduce it to practice. The first step towards this was to secure the patronage of some of the European powers. Accordingly

he laid his scheme before the senate of Genoa, making his native country the first offer of his services. They rejected his proposals.

He next applied to John II. king of Portugal, a monarch of an enterprising genius, and no incompetent judge of naval affairs. The king listened to him in the most gracious manner, and referred the consideration of his plan to a number of eminent scholars, whom he was accustomed to consult in matters of this kind. These men, from mean and interested views, started innumerable objections, and asked many questions, on purpose to betray Columbus into a full explanation of his system. Having done this, they advised the king to despatch a vessel, secretly, to attempt the proposed discovery, by following exactly the course which Columbus had pointed out.

Columbus, after years of waiting, abandoned the hope of obtaining a noble assistance, and applied to Henry VII. of England, from whom he received a decided refusal. Quitting Lisbon in 1484, Columbus went to Spain, intending to lay his plans before Ferdinand and Isabella, the sovereigns of that country. He could scarcely have chosen a more unpropitious time. He was told by the



CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.

sovereigns that on account of the Moorish war in which they were then engaged they were too much occupied to treat with him, but would consider his project at some future time when they would be better prepared to decide upon its merits.

He accepted this answer as a refusal, and prepared to go to France to ask the assistance of the king of that country, from whom he had received a friendly letter. Traveling on foot he stopped at the monastery of Santa Maria de Rabida, near Palos, to visit the Prior Juan Perez de Marchena, who had befriended him when he first came to Spain. The prior, learning his intention to quit Spain, persuaded him to remain until one more effort could be made to enlist the government in his plans. Leaving Columbus at the convent, Juan Perez, who had formerly been the queen's confessor,



COLUMBUS AT THE MONASTERY OF LA RABIDA.

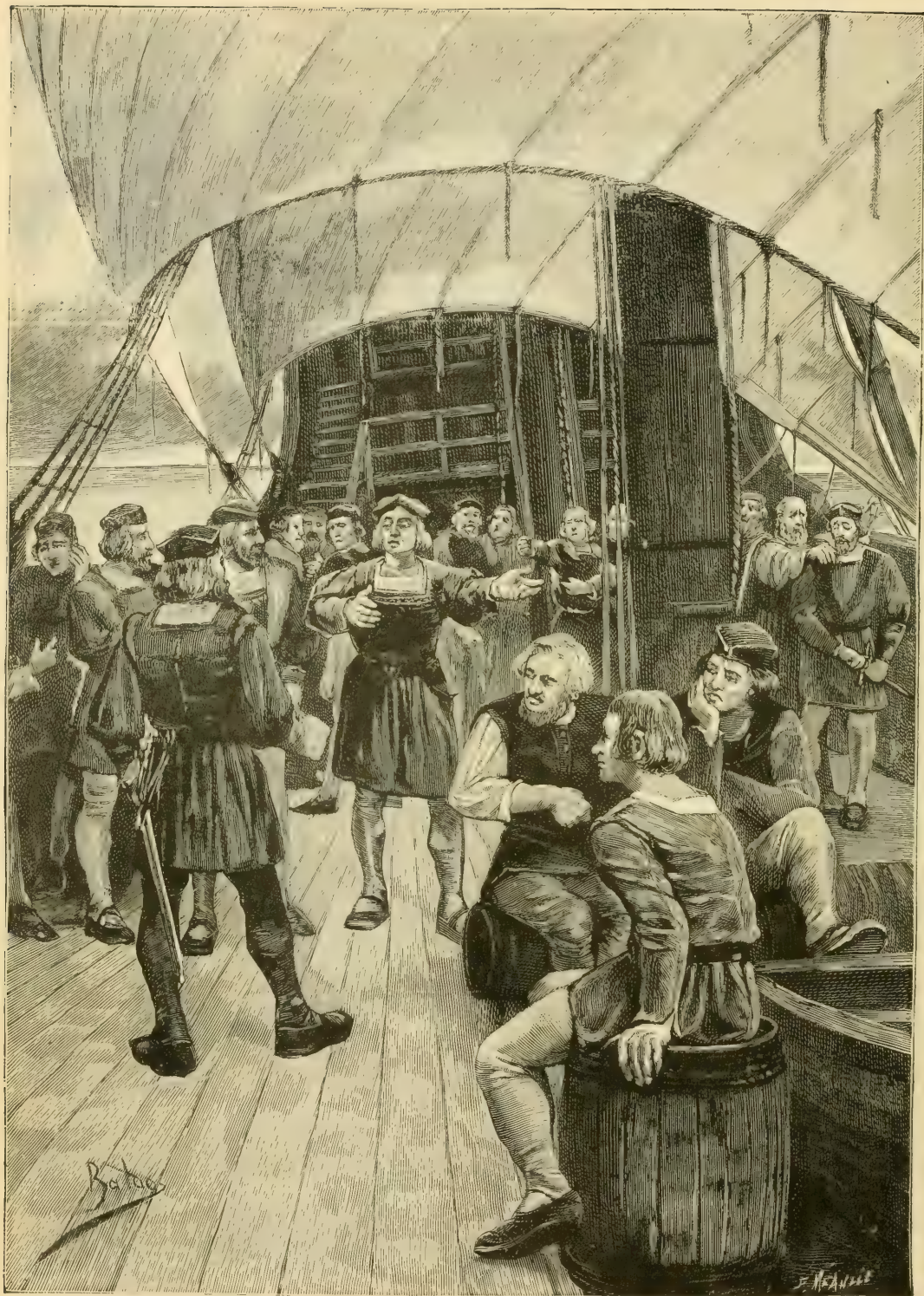
mounted his mule and set off for the Spanish camp before Granada. He was readily granted an interview by Queen Isabella, and he urged the suit of Columbus with all the force of eloquence and reasoning of which he was master, and finally was successful.

On the 3d of August, 1492, Columbus left Spain in the impressive presence of a large crowd of spectators, who united their supplications to heaven for his success. He steered directly for the Canary Islands, where he arrived and refitted, as well as he could, his crazy and ill-appointed fleet. Hence he sailed, September 6th, a due western course into an unknown ocean. Columbus now found a thousand unforeseen hardships to encounter, which demanded all his judgment, fortitude, and address to surmount. Besides the difficulties, unavoidable from the nature of his undertaking, he had to struggle with those which arose from the ignorance and timidity of the people under his command.

The Sailors Filled with Terror.

On the 14th of September he was astonished to find that the magnetic needle in their compass did not point exactly to the polar star, but varied towards the west; and as they proceeded, this variation increased. This new phenomenon, which is now familiar, though the cause remains one of the secrets of nature, filled the companions of Columbus with terror. Nature itself seemed to have sustained a change; and the only guide they had left, to point them to a safe retreat from an unbounded and trackless ocean, was about to fail them. Columbus, with no less quickness than ingenuity, assigned a reason for this appearance, which, though it did not satisfy himself, seemed so plausible to his companions, that it dispelled their fears, or silenced their murmurs. The sailors, discontented and alarmed, several times mutinied, and once proposed to throw their admiral overboard.

Columbus was now fully sensible of his perilous situation. He had observed, with great uneasiness, the fatal operation of ignorance and of fear in producing disaffection among his crew; and saw that it was now ready to burst out into open mutiny. He retained, however, perfect presence of mind. He affected to seem ignorant of their machinations. Notwithstanding the agitation and solicitude of his own mind, he appeared with a cheerful countenance; like a man satisfied with the progress which he had made, and confident of success. Sometimes he employed all the arts of insinuation to soothe his men.



COLUMBUS ADDRESSING HIS MEN DURING THE MUTINY ON BOARD HIS SHIP.

On other occasions he assumed a tone of authority, and threatened them with vengeance from their sovereign, if, by their dastardly behavior, they should defeat this noble effort to promote the glory of God, and to exalt the Spanish name above that of every other nation. Even with seditious sailors, the words of a man whom they had been accustomed to reverence were weighty and persuasive; and not only restrained them from those violent excesses which they meditated, but prevailed with them to accompany their admiral for some time longer. As they proceeded, the indications of approaching land seemed to be more certain.

Columbus in Danger from Mutiny.

Columbus, in imitation of the Portuguese navigators, who had been guided in several of their discoveries by the motion of birds, altered his course from due west towards that quarter whither they pointed their flight. But after holding on for several days in this new direction without any better success than formerly, having seen no object during thirty days but the sea and the sky, the hopes of his companions subsided faster than they had risen; their fears revived with additional force; impatience, rage and despair appeared in every countenance. All sense of subordination was lost.

The officers, who had hitherto concurred with Columbus in opinion, and supported his authority, now took part with the private men: they assembled tumultuously on the deck, expostulated with their commander, mingled threats with their expostulations, and required him instantly to tack about and to return to Europe. Columbus perceived that it would be of no avail to have recourse to any of his former arts, which, having been tried so often, had lost their effect; and that it was impossible to rekindle any zeal for the success of the expedition among men in whose breasts fear had extinguished every generous sentiment. He saw that it was no less vain to think of employing either gentle or severe measures, to quell a mutiny so general and so violent.

It was necessary, on all these accounts, to soothe passions which he could no longer command, and to give way to a torrent too impetuous to be checked. He promised solemnly to his men that he would comply with their requests, provided they would accompany him, and obey his commands for three days longer; and if, during that time, land were not discovered, he would then abandon the enterprise, and direct his course back to Spain. Enraged as the sailors were, and impatient to turn their faces again towards



LANDING OF COLUMBUS ON THE ISLAND OF SAN SALVADOR.

their native country, this proposition did not appear to them unreasonable. Nor did Columbus hazard much in confining himself to a term so short.

The presages of discovering land were now so numerous and promising, that he deemed them infallible. For some days the sounding line reached the bottom, and the soil which it brought up indicated land to be at no great distance. The flocks of birds increased, and were composed not only of sea-fowl, but of such land birds as could not be supposed to fly far from the shore. The crew of the *Pinta* observed a cane floating which seemed to be newly cut, and likewise a piece of timber artificially carved. The sailors aboard the *Nigna* took up the branch of a tree with red berries perfectly fresh. The clouds around the setting sun assumed a new appearance; the air was more mild and warm; and, during night, the wind became unequal and variable.

Welcome News that Land is Discovered.

From all these symptoms, Columbus was so confident of being near land that, on the evening of the 11th of October, after public prayers for success, he ordered the sails to be furled, and the ships to lie by, keeping strict watch, lest they should be driven ashore in the night. During this interval of suspense and expectation no man shut his eyes.

About two hours before midnight Columbus, standing on the fore-castle, observed a light at a distance, and privately pointed it out to Pedro Gutierrez, a page of the queen's wardrobe. Gutierrez perceived it, and calling to Salcedo, comptroller of the fleet, all three saw it in motion, as if it were carried from place to place. At 2 o'clock next morning Roderic Triana discovered land, and the joyful sound of *Land! land!* was heard from the *Pinta*, which kept always ahead of the other ships. But having been deceived so often by fallacious appearances, every man was now become slow of belief, and waited, in all the anguish of uncertainty and impatience, for the return of day.

As soon as morning dawned, all doubts and fears were dispelled. From every ship an island was seen about two leagues to the north, whose flat and verdant fields, well stored with wood and watered with many rivulets, presented the aspect of a delightful country. The crew of the *Pinta* instantly began the *Te Deum*, as a hymn of thanksgiving to God; and were joined by those of the other ships, with tears of joy and transports of congratulation.

This office of gratitude to heaven was followed by an act of justice to their commander. They threw themselves at the feet of Columbus with feelings of self-condemnation mingled with reverence. They implored him to pardon their ignorance, incredulity and insolence, which had created him so much unnecessary disquiet, and had so often obstructed the prosecution of his well-concerted plan; and passing, in the warmth of their admiration, from one extreme to another, they now pronounced the man whom they had so lately reviled and threatened, to be a person inspired by Heaven with sagacity and fortitude more than human, in order to accomplish a design so far beyond the ideas and conception of all former ages.

Astonishment of the People on Shore.

As soon as the sun arose all their boats were manned and armed. They rowed towards the island with their colors displayed, with warlike music, and other martial pomp. As they approached the coast they saw it covered with a multitude of people, whom the novelty of the spectacle had drawn together, whose attitudes and gestures expressed wonder and astonishment at the strange objects they saw.

Columbus was the first European who set foot in the New World which he had discovered. He landed in a rich dress and with a naked sword in his hand. His men followed; and, kneeling down, they all kissed the ground which they had so long desired to see. They next erected a crucifix, and, prostrating themselves before it, returned thanks to God for conducting their voyage to such a happy issue. The island was one of the Bahama islands, to which he gave the name of *San Salvador*, and took possession of it in the name of their Catholic Majesties.

In this first voyage he discovered several other of the Lucayo or Bahama Islands, with those of Cuba and Hispaniola. The natives considered the Spaniards as divinities, and the discharge of the artillery as their thunder; they fell prostrate at the sound. He afterwards touched at several of the islands in the same cluster, inquiring everywhere for gold, which he thought was the only object of commerce worth his attention. In steering southward he discovered the islands of Cuba and Hispaniola, inhabited by a humane and hospitable people.

Before embarking for Spain, Columbus took on board some of the products of the new world to convince the people on the other side of the ocean that he had made a great and important discovery. He captured some



COLUMBUS RECEIVING NATIVES ON BOARD HIS SHIP.

of the birds and animals, and also induced several of the natives to accompany him. The latter were ornamented with feathers, necklaces, etc.

On his return he was overtaken by a storm, which had nearly proved fatal to his ships and their crews. At a crisis when all was given up for lost, Columbus had presence of mind enough to retire into his cabin, and to write upon parchment a short account of his voyage; this he wrapped in an oiled cloth, which he enclosed in a cake of wax, put it into a tight cask, and threw it into the sea, in hopes that some fortunate accident might preserve a deposit of so much importance to the world.

Columbus Welcomed by the Court and People.

He arrived at Palos in Spain, whence he had sailed the year before, on the 15th of March, 1493. He was welcomed with all the acclamations which the populace are ever ready to bestow on great and glorious characters; and the court received him with marks of the greatest respect.

A second expedition, consisting of seventeen ships and fifteen hundred men, was now fitted out, and sailed from Cadiz under the command of Columbus on the 25th of September, 1493. On this voyage he discovered Jamaica and many of the Caribbee Islands.

In 1498 Columbus made a third voyage, and in this expedition he discovered the mainland of the American Continent near the mouth of the Orinoco, and explored the coast of the provinces, since called Para and Cumana. He was not aware of the true nature of his discovery, but supposed that the South American coast was a part of a large island belonging to Cathay or Farther India.

In the meantime gold had been discovered in Hayti, and crowds of adventurers were drawn hither from Spain. They inflicted great hardships upon the natives, and when Columbus arrived he found the affairs of the colony in a most deplorable state. The sovereigns at length sent over a commissioner named Bobadilla to investigate the affairs of the colony. He was a narrow-minded, incompetent man, and instead of investigating the charges against the admiral, arrested him, and sent him back to Spain in irons. When the officers of the ship which bore him back home wished to remove his fetters, he refused to allow them to do so, saying, "I will wear them as a memento of the gratitude of princes." The news of this outrage filled the people of Spain with honest indignation. "All seemed to feel it as a national dishonor," says Prescott, "that such indignities should be heaped

upon the man, who, whatever might be his indiscretions, had done so much for Spain, and for the civilized world."

Queen Isabella at once ordered his fetters to be struck off, and he was summoned to court, reinstated in all his honors, and treated with the highest consideration. Isabella gained from the king a promise to aid her in doing justice to the admiral, and in punishing his enemies; but Ferdinand, who could never bear to do a generous or noble act, evaded his promise, and the admiral failed to receive his just recompense.

Shipwrecked on the Coast of Jamaica.

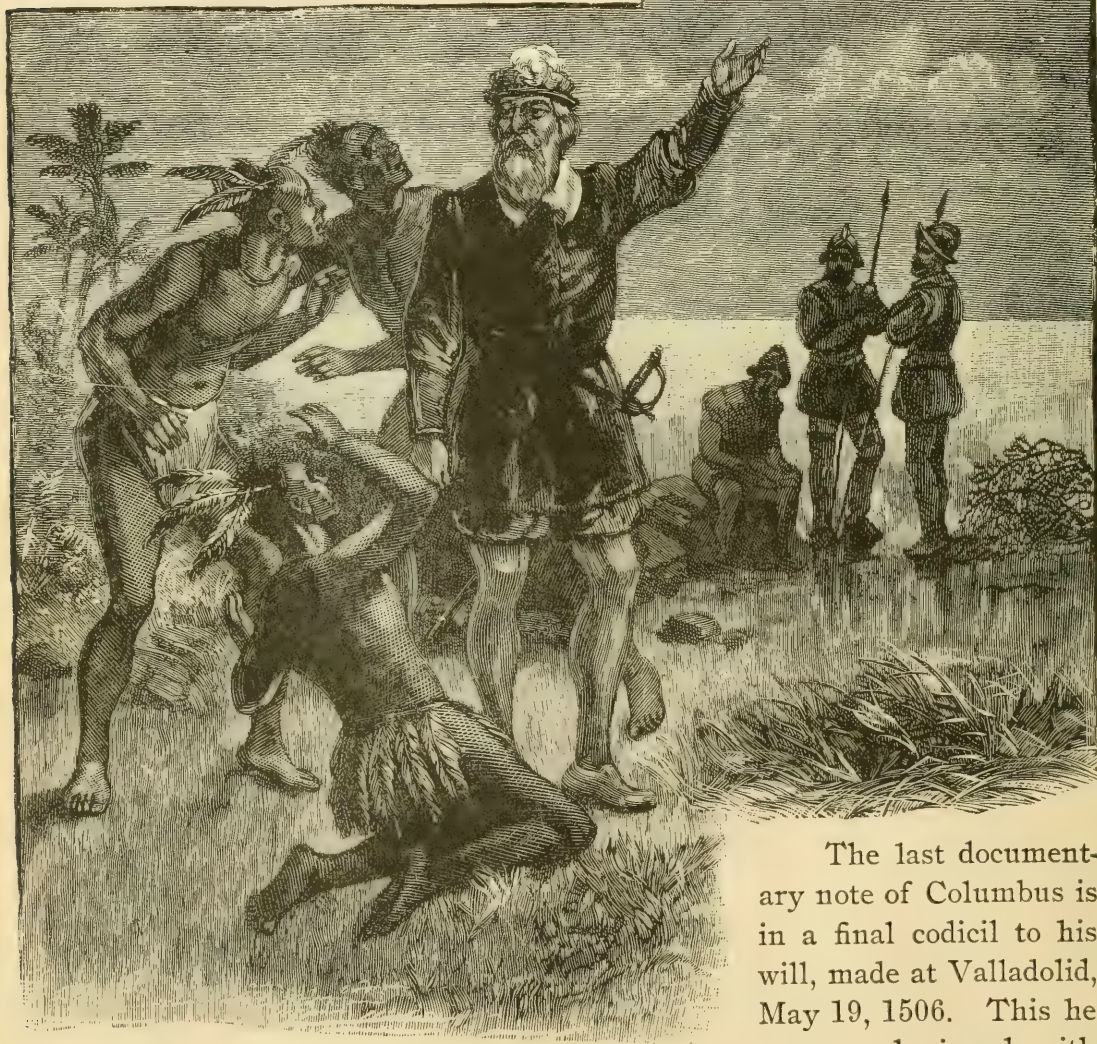
In 1504 Columbus sailed on his fourth voyage; his object this time being to find a passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, by which he might reach India. He explored the Gulf of Honduras, and saw the continent of North America, but was compelled by the mutiny of his crew and by severe storms to abandon his attempt and return to the northward. He was shipwrecked on the coast of Jamaica, where he remained more than a year.

Returning to Spain in November, 1505, he found his best friend, Queen Isabella, on her death-bed. The enemies whom his great success had raised up for him were numerous and powerful, while he was now old and broken in health. He vainly sought from Ferdinand a faithful execution of the original compact between them; but though he received fair words and promises in abundance from the king, Ferdinand steadily refused to comply with the just demands of the admiral.

On the last voyage of Columbus the Spaniards were so harsh and unjust to the Indians that they refused to bring in the supplies on which it may be said the lives of the visitors depended. Columbus led them to do so by appealing to their superstition. He foretold an eclipse of the sun, which, proving true, they were so terrified that they hastened to do his will. In addition to these trials, Columbus suffered very much from the diseases that had rooted themselves in his system. At last relief vessels arrived, and he set sail for Spain, landing, after a tempestuous voyage, at Seville, September 7, 1504.

Disease was making rapid inroads on the brave old navigator, who had undergone such vicissitudes of fortune. He had overcome obstacles that would have crushed ordinary men; he had quelled mutinies and faced perils innumerable by land and sea; but he could not beat off the attacks

which came with increasing years. When he reached Seville he was too ill to go to court, and his son Diego was sent forward to attend to his interests. The feeble admiral was treated kindly and with great honor. In May, 1505, he was removed to the court at Segovia, and thence to Valladolid, growing steadily weaker in body all the time.



NATIVES ASTONISHED BY THE ECLIPSE OF THE SUN.

The last documentary note of Columbus is in a final codicil to his will, made at Valladolid, May 19, 1506. This he wrote and signed with his own hand. The next day he passed away. He was quietly buried at Valladolid; but, some

time later, his bones were removed to the Carthusian monastery of Las Cuevas, Seville, where the remains of his son Diego were also subsequently laid. In 1536 the bodies of father and son were exhumed and taken across the ocean to San Domingo (Hispaniola), where they were buried in the cathedral. There they remained until 1795-1796, when, on the cession of the island to the French, the ashes were again exhumed, and with great state and ceremony, transferred to the cathedral of Havana, where they now remain. This male issue of Columbus ended with the third generation, and the estates and titles were transferred by marriage to the scion of the house of Braganca.

Columbus lived to experience the ingratitude of the sovereigns whom he had so faithfully served. They sought to deprive him of the reward they had promised; and it was only by a long and expensive lawsuit that his son succeeded at last in establishing his rights and founding a noble family, whose descendants are still among the highest grandees of Spain.

Story of Columbus and the Egg.

Columbus's readiness and address are well illustrated by the following anecdote: "Soon after Columbus's return from his first voyage, a splendid entertainment was proposed, to which he was invited, again to recount the particulars of his voyage in a more familiar and detailed manner than he had done before. There were many of the courtiers who secretly envied the good fortune of Columbus, and tried to disparge his success, by hinting that anybody might have done the same thing—that there was nothing very marvellous in discovering a western world—that if he had not done it, somebody else would; that the thing was, after all, by no means difficult.

"Upon this Columbus took up an egg, and civilly asked those present if they could make it stand on either of its ends. The courtiers tried, and tried, and tried again without success; and, after a while, were forced to give up the point. 'You see,' said Columbus, 'it is impossible.' Columbus then gave the egg a slight blow on one end, so as just to break in the shell. The egg stood immediately. 'There,' said he, 'it is possible after all; but I found out the way to do it, which none of you could.' The queen laughed heartily, and declared that Columbus was the victor."

CHAPTER IV.

ADVENTURES OF DE SOTO AND OTHERS.

AFTER the discovery of the Western world by Columbus, the principal European nations who made discoveries were the English, the French, the Spanish and the Dutch.

It was under the reign of the politic, though cruel, Henry VII. of England, that the shores of the United States were explored. The names of the Cabots should be remembered by American citizens with that of Columbus, for they equally form connecting links between our history and that of Europe. John Cabot, a native of Venice, had, with his family, settled in England. He and his renowned son, Sebastian, were men of great learning, enterprise and ability. By a commission of Henry VII., dated March 5th, 1496 (the oldest American state paper of England), they had authority to discover any heathen countries not before known to Christians. They, defraying the expenses of the voyage, were to possess these countries as the king's lieutenants, paying him one-fifth of all gains.

They sailed from England in May, 1497, and in June discovered the Island of Newfoundland, which they called *Prima Vista*. Steering northward, they made the first discovery of the continent on the coast of Labrador. On their return they pursued a southerly direction to an uncertain distance.

Sebastian Cabot sailed a second time—reached Labrador, thence turning southerly, and became the discoverer of the coast of the United States, along which he proceeded as far as the southern latitude of Maryland. It is much to be regretted that so few particulars remain on record of these two voyages, which form so fundamental a portion of our history.

Smitten by the common passion of the sovereigns of Europe for American discovery, Francis I., of France, turned aside alike from his elegant and his warlike pursuits, and one year before his defeat at Pavia he found for his service another Italian discoverer. This was John Verrazani, a Florentine, who reached the continent in the latitude of Wilmington,

North Carolina. He then sailed fifty leagues south, but finding no convenient harbor, he returned and cast anchor; being the first European who had afforded the astonished natives the spectacle of the white race. They were received with rude, but fearless hospitality.

The French looked with wonder upon the wild costume of the natives, made of the skins of animals, and set off by necklaces of coral and garlands of feathers. As they again sailed northward along the coast, their senses were regaled by the verdure of the forests, and the perfume of the flowers which they scented from the shores.

At a fine harbor, supposed to be that of Newport in Rhode Island, Verrazani remained fifteen days, and there found "the goodliest people he had seen." From thence he followed the northeastern shore of New England, finding the inhabitants jealous and hostile. From the peninsula of Nova Scotia he returned to France, and wrote a narrative of his voyage, which is the earliest original account of the coast of the United States.

Discovery of Canada.

James Cartier was, however, the mariner to whose discoveries the French trace the extensive empire which they possessed in North America. Cartier, after a prosperous voyage of twenty days, made Cape Bonavista, the most easterly point of Newfoundland. Sailing around the northeastern extremity of the island, he encountered severe weather and icy seas. Then, stretching to the southwest, he discovered on St. Lawrence's day, the noble gulf which bears the name of that saint. In July he entered a bay which, from the heats of the rapidly changing season, he named Des Chaleurs. Coasting thence to the small bay of Gaspé, he there landed and reared a cross, upon which he hung a shield bearing the arms of France, in token that the country was thenceforth a part of its domain. Boisterous weather soon obliged him to return.

In 1535 he sailed on a second voyage, entered the Gulf of St. Lawrence, proceeded up the river to which he gave the same name, and anchored at an island, which, abounding in grapes, he named Bacchus Isle, now the Isle of Orleans. He continued his voyage to the island of Hochelaga; when mounting on an eminence where his spirit was gladdened by the actual view of a beautiful region he had before seen in vision, he gave it the name of Mont Real. It was then the resort of native tribes, whose language proved them to be Hurons.

He returned to the isle Bacchus, built a fort, and there suffered not only the unwonted rigors of winter, but the attacks of the scurvy, a terrible malady, to which many of his company fell victims. He returned in the spring with dreary accounts of the country, which, however, he named New France. It was also called Canada, but at what time, or whether from any significance in the word, is not known.

Fort Built on the Site of Quebec.

France now possessed a country in the New World, through which flowed a river, more majestic than any in Europe. To hold sway over so extensive a region, though a wilderness, seemed to Francis De La Roque, of Roberval, more honorable than to govern a small and cultured domain in Picardy; and he obtained from the king full authority to rule, as viceroy, the vast territory around the bay and river of St. Lawrence. Cartier was necessary to him, and received the title of chief pilot and captain-general of the enterprise. The prisons were thrown open to find persons willing to become their colonists.

Nothing good could be expected from such beginnings. Cartier sailed up the St. Lawrence, built a fort near the site of Quebec, and there spent a winter, in which he had occasion to hang one of his company, put several in irons, and "whip divers women as well as men." In the spring he took them back to France, just as Roberval arrived with supplies and fresh emigrants. By him, however, nothing permanent was effected; and after a year, he abandoned his viceroyalty, and, cured, at least for a time, of his inordinate ambition, he returned to Picardy.

Coligni, the distinguished high admiral of France, sent out, under the command of John Ribault, well known as a brave and pious Protestant, two ships laden with conscientious Huguenots, or Protestants, many of whom were of the best families in France. They made land in the delightful clime of St. Augustine; and on the 1st of May discovered the St. John, which they called the river of May. Sailing along the coast northeasterly, they at length fixed on Port Royal entrance. There they built a fort, and in honor of the king of France, called it Carolina, a name which is preserved in the appellation of two of our States. Ribault left there a colony, and returned to France.

The commander of the fort provoked a mutiny, and was slain. The colonists longed for home. They put to sea without suitable provisions,

and, forlorn and famishing, were found by a British vessel and were carried by it to England.

The persevering Coligni soon after sent out another colony under Laudonniere, a seaman of worth and intelligence. Upon the banks of the river of May, with psalms of thanksgiving, they made their dwelling-place and erected another fort, called also Carolina. The next year Ribault arrived with vessels containing emigrants and supplies; and, taking the command, the colony seemed happily planted.

To bring together the discoveries of the same nation, we go back fifty years in the order of time. It is impossible at this day to conceive how much our knowledge of the geography of the earth has diminished the marvellous, so rife in the times of which we treat. Wonderful discoveries were continually expected, for such had already been made, and human hope is ever in advance of reality.

John Ponce de Leon, a Spanish soldier who had once voyaged with Columbus, had received an impression common in those times, that there existed in the New World a fountain whose waters had power to arrest disease, and give immortal youth. The aged Ponce set forth to seek it, and to conquer a kingdom. He searched among the Bahama Islands, then steered to the northwest. On Easter Sunday, called by the Spaniards Pascua Florida, and a little north of the latitude of St. Augustine, he discovered what he deemed a land of flowers, so brilliant were the forest trees. The fountain of life was not there; but Ponce took possession of the country in the name of the Spanish king, and called it Florida.

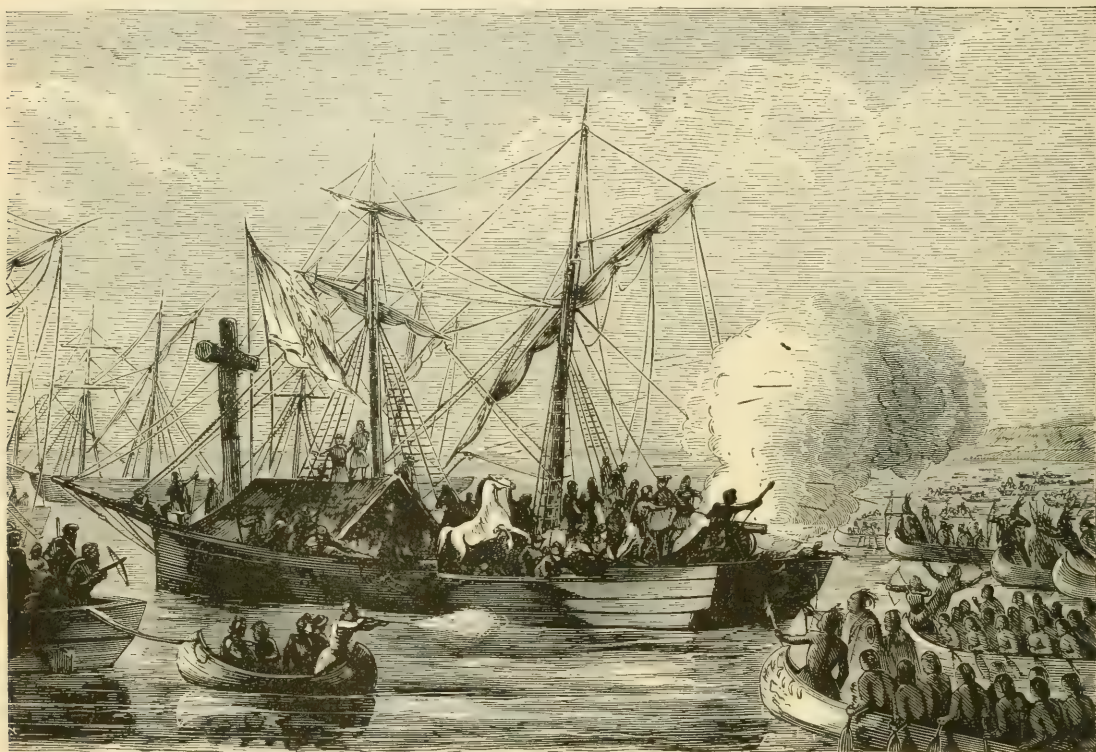
The part of South Carolina in the vicinity of the Combahee River was soon after visited by a Spaniard, Vasquez De Ayllon. The country was named Chicora, and the river, the Jordan. De Ayllon had two ships. He invited the natives to visit them, and while the unsuspecting throngs stood upon his deck, he hoisted sail, and in a moment they became miser-



FERNANDO DE SOTO.

able slaves, torn from their families, and condemned to ceaseless toil. De Ayllon obtained afterwards a commission to conquer the country, but the hostility of the natives could not be overcome, and numbers of Spaniards perished in the fruitless attempt.

By an unsuccessful effort of the Spaniards under the adventurer Narvaez, to conquer Florida, and the adjoining country, an army of three hundred Spanish, partly mounted cavaliers, wasted away till but four or five returned; and those not until after incredible wanderings and hardships.



SPANIARDS DESCENDING THE MISSISSIPPI AFTER THE DEATH OF DE SOTO.

They, however, insisted that Florida was the richest country in the world; and Ferdinand De Soto, already famous as the companion of Pizarro, the cruel conqueror of Peru, and ambitious to be in conquest equally great, listening to the marvelous tales of the wanderers, obtained a commission from Charles V. to conquer Florida at his own cost. His reputation gave him followers; and with high hopes he sailed to Cuba, of which he had been made Governor; and there adding to his armament, he landed in 1539 at Espirito Santo in Florida, with six hundred soldiers; an army

far greater in numbers and much better appointed than that with which Cortez conquered Mexico.

He expected to find mines and cities of gold; and being from time to time deluded by the natives, he pursued these shadows, which ever fled as he approached. He went north, crossed the Alleghany Mountains, then marched southerly to Mobile, where he fought a bloody battle with the people of a walled city containing several thousand inhabitants. At Pensacola he met ships from Cuba, with supplies for his exhausted army; and too proud to be wise, he still pursued a phantom, rather than retrace a false step.

The hope of the precious metals still lured him on, and he now bent his course to the northwest, and in latitude thirty-four degrees discovered the majestic Mississippi. He continued west until he reached the Wachita, when, becoming at length dispirited, he turned homewards his course, descended that stream to its junction with the Red River, and thence down its current; and where the Red mingles its waters with the Mississippi, there he died; and his body, inclosed in a hollow oak, was committed to the broad stream, from the discovery of which he derives his unenviable fame.

The Oldest City in America.

The officer who succeeded him in command, conducted the poor remains of the army down the Mississippi, seeking a place, where, no longer perpetually watched by concealed savage foes, he might once more "sleep out his full sleep."

When the news reached Spain that Florida had been colonized by French Huguenots, Philip II. found in Pedro Melendez de Aviles a fit agent of his own bigoted spirit; and he gave him the double commission to take possession of that country, and to destroy the heretics. More than five hundred persons accompanied Melendez, among whom were men with their families, soldiers, mechanics and priests. Coming upon the coast south of the settlement, he discovered the harbor of St. Augustine on the day of that saint; and here was now laid the foundation of the city of that name, the oldest by more than forty years, of any within the limits of our Republic.

The French had received from Melendez the terrible notice that he had come to destroy every person who was not a Catholic. Ribault, supposing that the Spaniards would make the attack by sea, embarked to meet them. A tremendous storm drove him from his track, and shipwrecked his whole

fleet. The Spaniards, meantime, crossed the forest and attacked by land. Unprepared and surprised, the defenseless fort soon surrendered; when cruel bigotry performed her murderous work upon all—without distinction of age or sex. The shipwrecked mariners were afterwards found, feeble and

exhausted upon the shore. Melendez invited them to come to him and trust to his compassion; they came—and he slew them!

When the news of this cruel massacre crossed the Atlantic, a cry of vengeance reached the French monarch, for the blood of nine hundred butchered subjects, but it was unheeded. Yet so deep was the feeling among the people of France, that three years afterwards, individuals headed by the gallant chevalier Gouges, made a descent on the settlement of Florida and put to death two hundred Spaniards.



THE RENOWNED EXPLORER, SIR MARTIN FROBISHER.

The Spanish colony was thus checked, but it was not destroyed; and it proved to be the first permanent settlement made by Europeans upon the shores of our Republic.

Though England had made no effort to colonize America during the long period we have been considering, she never abandoned her claims to

that region, claims which were based upon the discoveries and explorations of John and Sebastian Cabot. The voyages of her fishermen to Newfoundland kept the country fresh in the minds of the sea-faring Englishmen, and from time to time voyages were made to the American coast for the purpose of trading with the savages. Under Elizabeth, who pursued the wise policy of fostering her navy, a race of hardy and daring sailors grew up in England, and carried the flag of their country into every sea.

A Cargo of Worthless Dirt.


In this reign Martin Frobisher with two small ships made a voyage to the frozen regions of Labrador in search of the northwest passage. He failed to find it, but penetrated farther north than any European had yet gone, A. D. 1576. His second voyage was made the next year, and was undertaken in the hope of finding gold, as one of the stones he had brought home on his first cruise had been pronounced by the refiners of London to contain the precious metal.

The fleet did not advance as far north as Frobisher had done on his first attempt, as a large mass of yellow earth was found which was believed to contain gold. The ships were loaded with this, and all sail was made for home, only to find on reaching England that their cargo was but a heap of worthless dirt. A third voyage with fifteen ships was attempted in 1578, but no gold was found, and the extreme northern latitudes were ascertained to be too bleak for colonization.

The idea of discovering gold in America seems to have been constantly in the mind of the various discoverers who, at this period, commanded expeditions. High hopes were entertained of finding untold wealth in the new world, and when such attempts failed, evil reports were naturally carried back by the disappointed adventurers.

CHAPTER V.

STORY OF SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

HE history of English colonization in America begins with two remarkable men, Sir Humphrey Gilbert and his brother-in-law, Sir Walter Raleigh. The English monarchy claiming the country, in virtue of the discovery of Sebastian Cabot, Queen Elizabeth, the reigning sovereign, gave to Sir Humphrey Gilbert, in 1578, by an open or patent letter, "all such remote, heathen and barbarous lands," as he should discover in North America, and of which he should take possession; these lands not having been before occupied by any other Christian power.

She vested in him and his heirs the full right of property in the soil, and also the complete right of jurisdiction over those countries, and the seas adjoining them; declaring that all who settle there should enjoy the privileges of free citizens and natives of England; and finally, she prohibited all persons from attempting to settle within two hundred leagues of any place which Sir Humphrey, or his associates, should have occupied for the space of six years. For these privileges the patentee was to acknowledge the authority of the crown of England as supreme, and pay to the sovereign one-fifth of all the gold and silver which should be obtained from these countries.

In the first attempt made by Gilbert to plant a colony, he put to sea, but was obliged to return. In the second, he reached St. John's, in Newfoundland, where he took possession of the country for his sovereign by raising a pillar inscribed with the British arms. He next sought means to secure to the English the fisheries on the banks, which were now so valuable as to be contested by different European nations. From thence he sailed southwesterly, till he reached the latitude of the mouth of the Kennebec. Here the largest of his three vessels struck, and all her crew perished.

Gilbert now finding it impossible to proceed, set his face towards England, keeping in the smallest of his remaining vessels, a barge of only ten tons; for his generous heart refused to put any to a peril he was himself

unwilling to share. The passage was stormy, but his pious mind found comfort in the reflection which, as he sat reading in the stern of his barge, he uttered to his companions in the larger vessel: "we are as near heaven at sea, as on land;" and he might have added, in the words of that book which was doubtless in his hand, "Ye shall seek me in the morning, but I shall not be;" for in the night the lights of his little bark suddenly vanished, and he was heard of no more.

The bold and energetic Raleigh, who had in France been a pupil of Coligni, pursued with unabated ardor the great career in which Gilbert had wasted his fortune, and lost his life. From his courtly demeanor and brilliant genius, Sir Walter had made himself a favorite with the stately Queen, and he readily gained from her a patent, with privileges no less ample than those which she had granted to his brother.

Raleigh had learned from the unsuccessful emigrants of France the superior mildness and fertility of the south, and thither he dispatched two vessels under Philip Amidas and Arthur Barlow. They approached the shore at Pamlico Sound, and, according to their florid descriptions, were regaled with "the delicate smell of the flowers" far off at sea; and on landing in Ocracok, or Roanoke Island, they found the grapes so abundant on the coast, that the surges of the sea often washed over them.

The natives were as kindly as their climate and soil. The king's son, Granganimo, came with fifty of his people and received them with distinguished courtesy. He invited them to his dwelling at twenty miles distance on the coast; but when they went it chanced he was not at home. His wife came out to meet them, and with a hospitality which no instance of civilized life can surpass, she ordered some of her people to draw their boat ashore to preserve it, and others to bring the Englishmen on their backs through the surf. Then, conducting her guests to her home, she had a fire kindled, that they might dry their clothes, which were wet with



SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

rain; while in another room she spread a plentiful repast of fish, venison, esculent roots, melons and fruits. As they were eating, several Indians, armed with bows and arrows, entered. She chid them, and sent them away, lest her visitors should suffer from alarm.

When the navigators returned to England, and made to Elizabeth their report of this delightful region, she was induced to give it the name of Virginia, as a memorial that the happy discovery had been made under a virgin queen. The name soon became general throughout the coast.

Raleigh now found many adventurers ready to embark in his project; and in 1585 he fitted out a squadron of seven ships, under the command of Sir Richard Grenville, who followed the course of Amidas and Barlow, and touched at the same islands; in one of which he cruelly burned a village, because he suspected an Indian of having stolen a silver cup. He then left a colony under Captain Lane at the island of Roanoke. The colonists, reduced to great distress for want of provisions, the next year were carried to England by Sir Francis Drake, who was returning from a successful expedition against the Spaniards in the West Indies.

A Crew that was never Heard From.

Soon after their departure they were sought by a ship which had been sent by Raleigh with supplies, and afterwards by Sir Richard Grenville. He, not finding them, most unwisely left fifteen of his crew to keep possession of the island, and then returned to England. Of this small number nothing was afterwards heard. Probably they were destroyed by the injured and revengeful savages.

The account of Virginia furnished by the colonists to Sir Walter Raleigh was such as to encourage that enterprising speculator to make another attempt. The faults of the previous expedition were now apparent, and could be guarded against. It was true that the Indians were not to be relied on, and that their hostility had resulted in a very serious disaster; but the country itself was a prize worth winning. Raleigh, therefore, determined on an effort of a more elaborate character. This time the male emigrants should be accompanied by their wives and children, and a real colony, not merely a settlement of explorers, should be formed. To the community thus about to be created, Sir Walter granted a charter of incorporation, and at the same time established a municipal government for a contemplated city, which was to be called after the great adventurer himself.

The governor was to be one John White, and under him were placed twelve assistants. The fleet of transport ships consisted of three vessels, all fitted out at the charge of Raleigh, for the queen declined to bear any portion of the expense. Implements of husbandry were supplied to the emigrants; and when the ships set sail from Portsmouth, on the 26th of April, 1587, it might well have seemed that fortunate days were in store for the party. They arrived off the coast of North Carolina in July, and, on reaching Roanoke Island, made search for the fifteen men left there the year before by Sir Richard Grenville. But all was desolate and solitary.

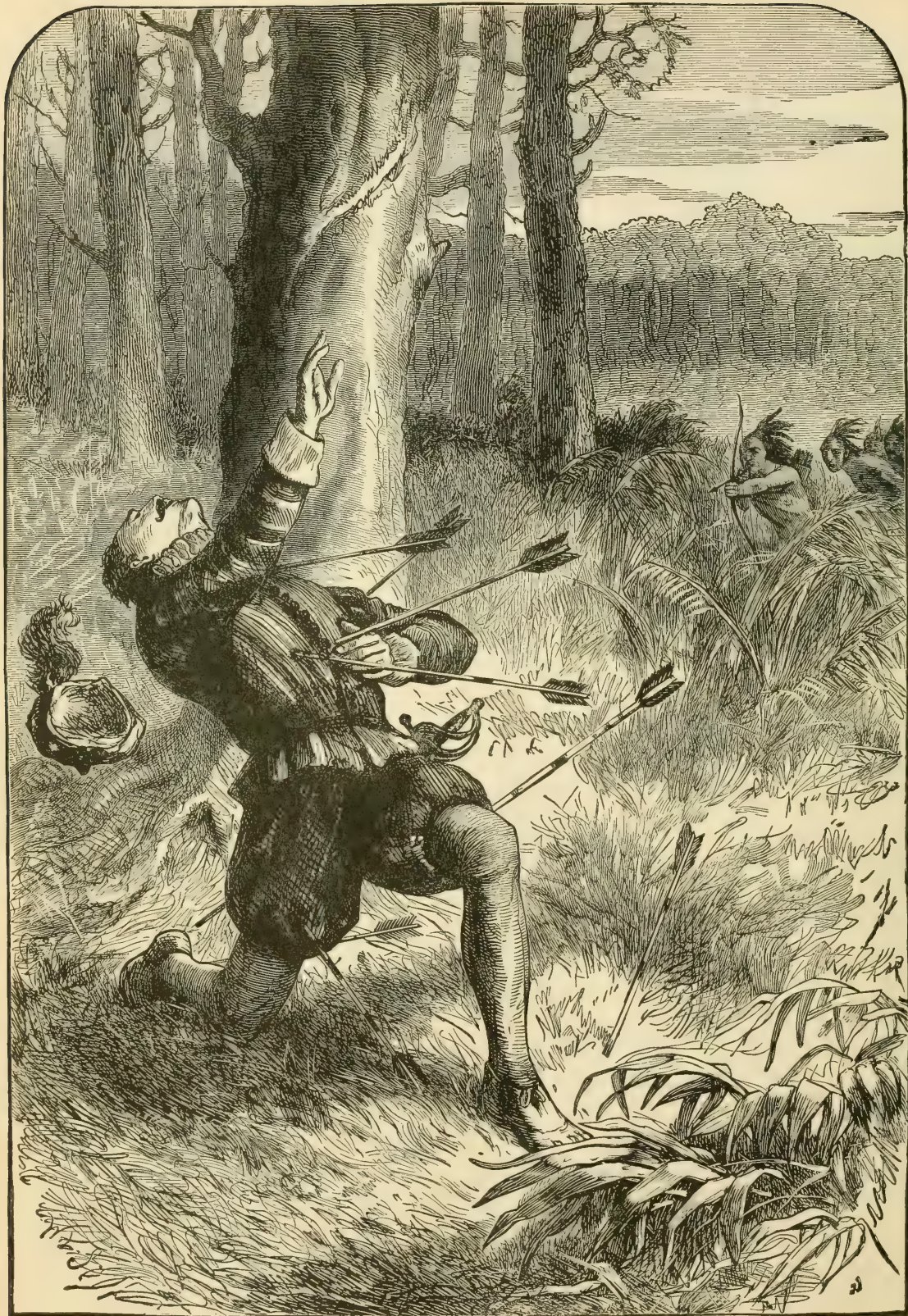
A few human bones lay scattered about, and, at the north end of the island, the fort erected by Lane was found levelled with the earth. The dwelling-houses of his men were still standing; but the lower rooms were overgrown with melons, already springing up in rank luxuriance under the enchantment of that exquisite climate; and deer were couched within, feeding on the fruit which there were no hands to gather.

Killed by Arrows and Clubs.

This was far from an encouraging commencement; but the colonists set to work repairing the houses and building new ones. They had not been there many days when one of the twelve assistants of Governor White was slain by a party of savages who came over to Roanoke, and, hiding themselves among the tall reeds on the shore, transfixed the poor Englishman (who was alone, and two miles away from his comrades) with sixteen arrows, and then beat in his head with clubs. Captain White returned to England to solicit supplies for the colony. Before he departed, his daughter, Mrs. Dare, gave birth to a female infant, the first child of English parents born in America. The infant was baptized by the name of Virginia.

The attempts made by Raleigh for the relief of this colony were unremitted, but unsuccessful; for at this time the Spanish Armada threatened to overwhelm England itself; and three years elapsed before he could procure the means of sending Captain White to their relief. It was then too late. Not one remained; nor, though repeatedly sought, has any clue to their fate ever been found. Appalled and in danger of perishing himself, White returned, without leaving one English settler on the shores of America.

In consequence of the unfortunate issue of these attempts, Raleigh was easily induced to assign his right of property, together with all the privileges contained in his patent, to a company of merchants in London. This



company, satisfied with a paltry traffic with the natives, made no attempt to take possession of the country.

In 1602 Bartholomew Gosnold, with thirty-two men, sailed from Falmouth, and steering due west, he was the first English commander who reached the country by this shorter and more direct course. He approached the coast near Nahant, but failing to find a good harbor, he bore to the south, discovered and gave name to Cape Cod, which was the first ground in New England ever trod by Englishmen. Thence sailing round Nantucket, he discovered and named Martha's Vineyard, entered Buzzard's Bay, and, finding a fertile island, he gave it, in honor of the Queen, the name of Elizabeth. Near its western shore, on an islet in a lake, he built a fort and storehouse, and prepared to leave there a small colony. But the natives became hostile, and his intended settlers would not remain. Having freighted his vessel, mostly with sassafras root, then much esteemed in pharmacy, he hoisted sail and reached England with all his men, after a passage of five weeks, the shortest then known.

Expedition Sent to America by France.

France, wasted by her wars, had for fifty years neglected her claims to territory on the western continent. At length she sent out an expedition, and attempted to plant a colony. This expedition discovered and named the rivers St. John and St. Croix, and sailed along the coast as far as Cape Cod.

The English becoming alarmed at this encroachment on territory which they claimed, James I., the successor of Elizabeth, divided that portion of North America which lies between the 34th and 45th degree of North latitude into two districts nearly equal; granting the southern part, or first colony of Virginia, included between the 34th and 41st degrees, to a company of merchants called the London Company; and the northern or second colony of Virginia, included between the 38th and 45th degrees, to another corporation, called the Plymouth Company. The king authorized these companies to make settlements, provided they were not within one hundred miles of each other, and vested them with a right of land along the coast, fifty miles each way, and extending into the interior one hundred miles from the place of settlement.

The London and Plymouth companies prepared to take possession of the lands which had been assigned to them. The first vessel fitted out by the Plymouth Company, in 1606, was taken by the Spaniards. In 1607

they sent out Admiral Raleigh Gilbert, with a hundred planters, under Capt. George Popham, their president. They landed at the mouth of Kennebec river, where they built and fortified a storehouse; but in two or three months the ships returned to England, leaving only forty-five men. The sufferings of the colony, under Capt. Popham, were, through the winter, very severe. They lost their storehouse by fire, and their president by death, and the next year returned to England, considering the country "a cold, barren, mountainous desert," where, in the quaint language of that period, they declared "they found nothing but extreme extremities." This was the first and only attempt to settle this part of the country till 1620.

Thus, after a period of one hundred and ten years, from the time of Cabot's discoveries, and twenty-four years after Raleigh planted the first colony, there was not, in 1607, an Englishman settled in America. The wilderness was not inviting to those who had been accustomed to a country long settled and furnishing all the conveniences and luxuries of civilized life. The American savages were not always to be depended upon and on account of some real or fancied injury were ready to take revenge on the unprotected settlers. It was but natural that the immigrants should feel the separation from their former home and friends. These causes all operated to retard the settlement of the new country. Still, America was not destined to long remain a territory unoccupied by Europeans. "Westward the course of empire took its way."

CHAPTER VI.

CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH AND POCAHONTAS.

IN 1607 the London Company sent out Captain Christopher Newport, with three ships and one hundred and five men, among whom was the navigator, Gosnold, and Captain John Smith, the Father of Virginia. He was already celebrated for his daring and chivalrous exploits, to which he was led by the love of adventure and of

glory, and by a desire to serve both God and man. In boyhood he fought for freedom in Holland; and thence traveled over France, Egypt and Italy. In Hungary he bravely met the Turks in battle, and was promoted to command. In presence of the ladies particularly, he ever showed himself a brave knight, and was often conqueror in single combats. He was repeatedly taken prisoner, and already, both in Turkey and in Russia, had been rescued from destruction by female benevolence.

The fleet sailed by the West Indies, and being driven north of Roanoke by a storm, an accidental discovery was thus made of the entrance of the Chesapeake Bay, the boundaries of which were now named Capes Charles and Henry, in honor of the king's sons. Stretching at once into the noble bay, the adventurers sailed up the Powhatan river, to which they gave the name of the James, and upon its banks, fifty miles from its mouth, they fixed their residence, and raised a few huts. The place was called Jamestown, an appellation which it still retains; and though it has



CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH.

never risen to wealth or distinction, and is now only discernible by a few falling ruins, still it was the first of the English settlements in the New World; and hence has all the honor among the American states that antiquity can confer and is regarded with unusual interest.

Rights Denied to the Settlers.

The colony was under charter government, the instrument having been drawn up by James himself. It did not give to the proprietors the power to govern the people who should settle the country, but the right of jurisdiction was reserved to the king. To the colonies no assurance was given, but the vague promise that they should continue to be Englishmen. Religion was established by law, according to the forms and doctrines of the church of England. There was, for the present, no division of property; and, for five years, all labor was to be for the benefit of the joint stock.

The government was to be administered by a council nominated by the king, but to reside in the colony. As soon as the emigrants landed, the king's commission, according to his direction, was opened; the council was organized, and a governor elected. They chose Edward Wingfield, their worst man; while Smith, their best, was, from envy, to be excluded even from a seat in the council, although he was one whom the king had nominated. Gathering misfortunes, however, and the kindly influence of their good clergyman, Robert Hunt, reversed this sentence, and made the colonists glad to submit to the man whose talents and zeal for the settlement marked him as their natural head.

The neighboring Indians soon annoyed the colony by their petty hostilities. Their provisions failed, and the scanty allowance to which they were reduced, as well as the influence of a climate to which they were not accustomed, gave rise to disease, so that the number of the colonists rapidly diminished. Sometimes four or five died in a day, and there was not enough of the well to give decent burial to the dead. Fifty perished before winter, among whom was the excellent Gosnold. The energy and cheerful activity of Smith threw the only light which glanced upon the dark picture. He so managed as to awe the natives, and at the same time to conciliate and obtain from them supplies of food; while, among the emigrants he encouraged the faint-hearted and put in fear the rebellious. Winter at length came, and with it relief from diseases of climate, and plentiful supplies of wild fowl and game.

The London company, with an ignorance of geography, which even then was surprising, had given directions that some of the streams flowing from the northwest should be followed up in order to find a passage to the South Sea. Smith was superior to the company in intelligence, but he knew the duties of a subordinate, and he therefore prepared to explore the head waters of the Chickahominy, which answered as nearly as possible to their description.

Powhatan, the chief or emperor of the savage confederacy inhabiting or wandering about the waters of the James and its tributaries, had been visited by the colonists early after their arrival. His imperial residence consisted of twelve wigwams near the site of Richmond. Next to him in power was his brother, Opechacanough, who was chief of the Pamunkies on the Chickahominy. Smith embarked in a barge on that river, and when he had ascended as far as possible in this manner, he left it, with the order that his party should not land till his return; and with four attendants he pursued his objects twenty miles farther up the river.

The Indians had watched his movements, and when the men left in the barge, disobeying his order, had landed, they fell upon them, took them prisoners, and obliged them to discover the track of their captain. He, in pursuit of game, soon found himself hunted by swarms of savage archers. In this extremity he bound to his breast, as a shield, an Indian youth who was with him; and then shot three Indians, wounded others and kept the whole party at bay. Attempting to retreat to his canoe while yet watching his foe, suddenly he sank to his middle in an oozy creek. The savages dared not even then touch him, till, perishing with cold, he laid down his arms and surrendered.

They carried him to a fire, near which some of his men had been killed. By his Indian guide and interpreter he then called for their chief. Opechacanough appeared, and Smith politely presented to him his pocket compass. The Indians were confounded at the motions of the fly-needle,



POCAHONTAS.

which, on account of the mysterious glass, they could see, but could not touch. He told them wonderful stories of its virtues, and proceeded, as he himself relates, "by the globe-like figure of that jewel, to instruct them, concerning the roundness of the earth, and how the sun did chase the night round about the world continually," by which his auditors were filled with profound amazement.

Their minds seemed to labor with the greatness of the thought, that a being so superior was in their power; and they vacillated in their opinion whether or not it was best to put him to death; and as often changed their conduct. They took him to Powhatan, thence led him round from one wondering tribe to another, until, at the residence of Opechacanough, these superstitious dwellers of the forest employed their sorcerers or powows for three days to practice incantations, in order to learn, from the invisible world, whether their prisoner wished them well or ill.

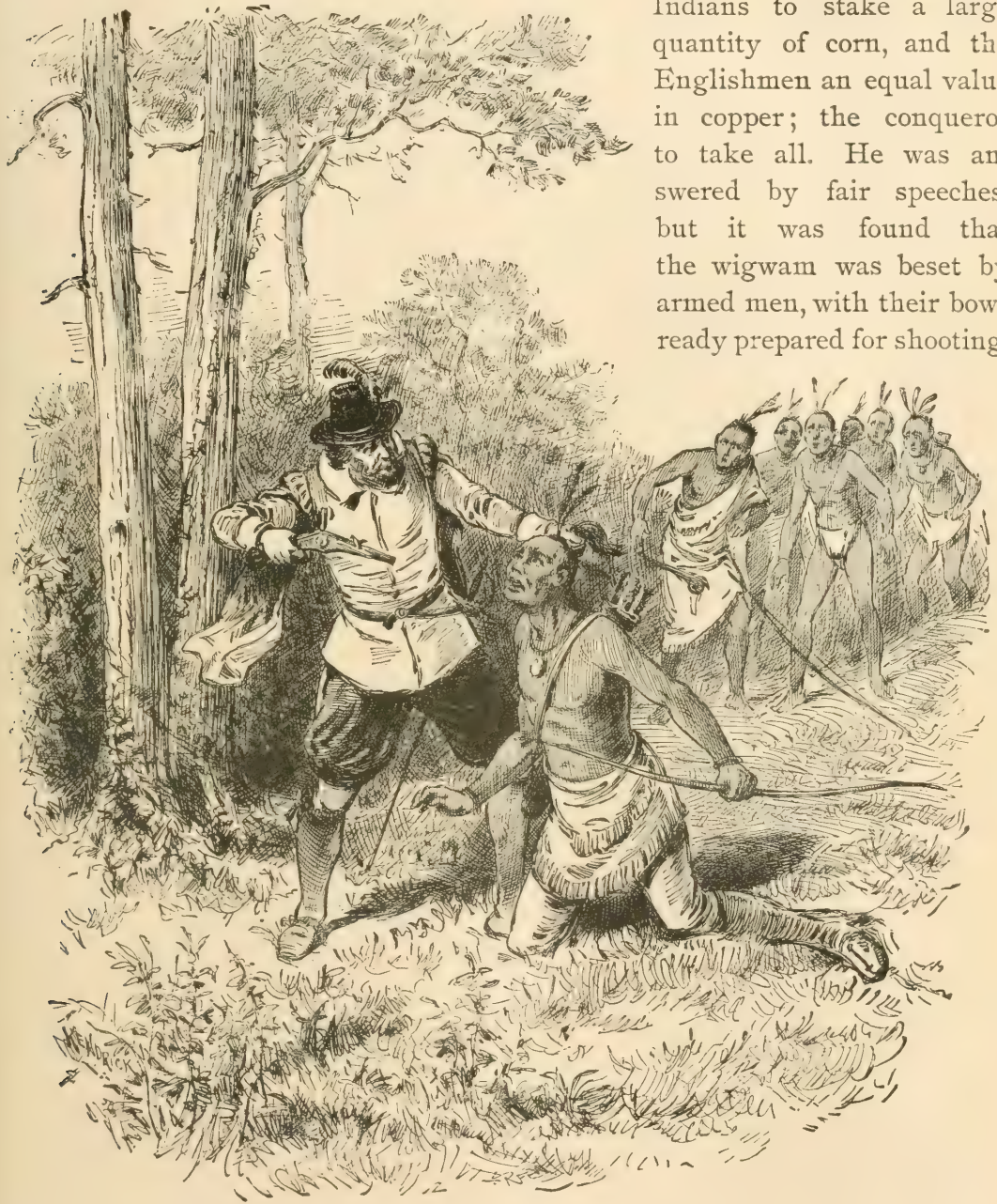
Smith's Life Saved by Pocahontas.

The decision of his fate was finally referred to Powhatan. At his residence that majestic savage received him in state, but he condemned him to die. His warriors were around, and his women sitting near him. All were painted with gaudy colors and adorned with feathers. The queen of Apamattuck brought the captive water to wash in, and another Indian queen feathers to serve as a towel. Others gave him food, as for a feast. Then two stones were brought and laid before the chief, and two savages stood with uplifted war-clubs. Smith was dragged to the spot, and his head placed upon the stones. Pocahontas, his daughter, of tender age, rushed forward, and with cries and tears begged of Powhatan to spare him. He refused. The devoted girl then ran and knelt beside the victim, and laid her young head upon his. Then the stern savage relented, and Smith was saved.

It cannot be doubted that the extraordinary boldness and audacity of Smith often prevented disasters by striking a panic into the savages. One day towards the latter end of 1608, he and fifteen others went to Pamunkey, with a view to obtaining supplies of Opechacanough, from whom he had been led to expect some assistance. The savages appeared with a warlike array, but with so poor a stock of provisions that it was not worth having.

Smith, suspecting treachery, addressed his followers first, and, having obtained their promise to stand fast even in the greatest danger, challenged

the chieftain and his companions to fight him and his men openly; the Indians to stake a large quantity of corn, and the Englishmen an equal value in copper; the conqueror to take all. He was answered by fair speeches, but it was found that the wigwam was beset by armed men, with their bows ready prepared for shooting.



CAPTAIN SMITH'S FIGHT WITH AN INDIAN CHIEF.

Angered at the manifest intention of the savages, Smith seized Opechacanough by the long lock which Indians wear in front of their

heads, presented a pistol to his breast, and dragged him out into the midst of his armed followers, whom he reproached with their design, daring them to shoot him, and vowing to exterminate the whole tribe if one of his men were hurt. At the same time he professed his friendly intentions, if he were allowed to trade peacefully for their commodities. This produced the desired effect, and good-will was again established for the time being.

Smith having now learned much of the Indians, their country, modes of warfare, dispositions and language, and having also by his great address and honorable bearing, won their affection and confidence, his visit to the chief proved, under divine Providence, a means of establishing the colony. During his absence, however, there had been disorder and misrule; and when he returned to Jamestown he found only thirty-eight person remaining. The spirits of the people were broken; and all, filled with despondency, were anxious to leave a country so inhospitable. He prevailed upon them, however, partly by force and partly by persuasion, to remain till the next year, when Newport arriving from England with some supplies and one hundred and twenty emigrants, hope again revived.

A Powerful Indian Tribe.

During the year 1608 Captain Smith explored the Chesapeake Bay to its head, discovered its fine streams, and gained new information concerning the native productions and inhabitants of the country. In an excursion which he made up the Rappahannock, he had a skirmish with the Manna-hocks, a tribe descended from the Delawares, and took prisoner a brother of one of their chiefs. From him he first heard of the Iroquois, who, the Indian told him, "dwelt on a great water to the north, had a great many boats, and so many men that they waged war with all the rest of the world."

Immediately on his return he was chosen president of the council. He found the recent emigrants "goldsmiths and gentlemen." But he promptly gave them their choice, to labor for six hours a day or have nothing to eat. He represented to the council in England that they should send laborers; that the search of gold should be abandoned, and that "nothing should be expected except by labor."

Pocahontas repeatedly saved the life of Smith, and preserved this earliest English settlement from destruction. In the various fortunes of the colony, she was its unchanging friend, often coming with her attendants to bring baskets of provisions in times of scarcity, and sometimes giving

notice of hostile designs. On one occasion, when Captain Smith, with a considerable escort, had visited her father, and was to be feasted, she came privately, and told him that a great number of Indians would be sent to bring in his food, and would, if possible, such was the plot, murder him and his company at table, with their own arms. Otherwise it was intended to kill them in the night. Smith was penetrated with gratitude, that she had again saved him, and wished to give her some testimonial. She turned away with tears, saying it would but betray her, and she was suspected already.

Famine and Death in the Colony.

At length a calamity deprived the colony of its father. An accidental explosion of gunpowder so injured Smith that no medical skill there was adequate to the treatment of his case; and, delegating his authority to George Percy, brother to the Earl of Northumberland, he returned to England. After his departure all subordination and industry ceased among the colonists. The Indians, ever on the watch, harassed them with hostilities, and withheld their customary supplies.

Their stores were soon exhausted. The domestic animals, which had been sent to breed in the country, were taken and devoured: and, in the extremity of their distress, they even perpetrated, in two instances, the act of feeding on human flesh. Smith left four hundred and ninety persons. In six months anarchy and vice had reduced the number to sixty, and those so feeble and forlorn that in ten days more they must all have perished.

In the meantime Sir Thomas Gates and his companions, who had been wrecked on the rocks of Bermuda, had found there the means to construct a vessel; and now approaching Jamestown, they anticipated a happy meeting with their friends. How were their hearts smitten as they beheld the meagre spectres of famine and death which met them! They were obliged to yield to the universal cry, desert the settlement, and re-embark with the whole colony.

They departed in the morning, and, falling down the stream with the tide, they descry at evening, near the river's mouth, three ships, and Lord Delaware, their paternal governor, arrives, supplies their wants, and turns their hearts to the pious and consoling thought that God had delivered them. And then this residue returned, a chastened and a better people. Thus Providence prevented a dissolute band from becoming the founders of our first settled State, and gave a better seed.

The colony again became comparatively flourishing, but in March, 1611, the governor's health unfortunately declined, and he was obliged to



FLIGHT OF THE INDIANS AFTER THE MASSACRE.

leave the country. On the departure of Lord Delaware, Percy was again at the head of the administration, until the arrival of Sir Thomas Dale, in May. Dale had received from the company power to rule with martial law.

which he exercised, but with such moderation, that good order and industry prevailed. The state of the colony, however, was not flourishing, and Dale immediately wrote to England for aid. In less than four months, Sir Thomas Gates arrived, with six ships and three hundred emigrants.

After Captain Smith's departure, Captain Argall, at the head of a foraging party, learned that Pocahontas was for a season with the family of Japazaws, the chief of the Potomacs. Him, Argall bribed, with a kettle of shining copper, to betray the Indian princess, whom for interested motives he wished to make prisoner. Japazaws concerted with his wife that she should appear to be seized with an invincible desire to visit Argall's vessel lying in the river. He was to affect anger, and threaten, but at length so far to relent as to engage to take her to the vessel if her friend Pocahontas would accompany her. The plot succeeded, and thus the English, by the goodness of her heart, ensnared and made prisoner their benefactress.

The Indian Maiden Wedded.

When she was taken to Jamestown an unceremonious message was sent to Powhatan, that he must ransom her with certain men and articles, which he was accused with having taken. To this the dignified old chieftain made no reply for three months. In the meantime an English youth of the colony, John Rolfe, wooed the Indian maiden, and obtained her consent to marriage, the connection proving a bond of union during the life of Powhatan.

Pocahontas received Christian baptism under the name of Rebecca; after which she went with her husband to England, where special attention was paid her by the king and queen, at the instigation of Smith. She had been told that he was dead, and when he came to see her she turned away, and for a time could not or would not speak. He kindly soothed her, and at length she addressed him as her father, and endearingly recalled the scenes of their early acquaintance. Having given birth to a son, she was about to return, when she sickened and died, at the age of twenty-two. Her son survived and reared an offspring, which being perpetuated in some of the best families of Virginia, they boast their descent from one who ranks high, not merely on the roll of savages and of women, but of humanity itself.

On the twenty-second of March, 1622, a general attack was made by the savages upon all the settlements of the colony. On the previous night the plot had been revealed to a converted Indian named Chauco, who at once hastened to Jamestown and gave warning of the danger. The alarm

spread rapidly to the nearest settlements, but those at a distance could not be reached in time to avert their fate. Those settlements which had been warned were able to offer a successful resistance to their assailants, and some of those which were surprised beat off the Indians; but the number of victims, men, women and children, who fell this day amounted to three hundred and forty-seven. All these were slain, and their fate would have been shared by the whole colony but for the warning of the friendly Indian.

The effect upon the colony was appalling. The distant plantations had been destroyed by the savages, and out of eighty settlements eight alone survived. These, and especially Jamestown, were crowded beyond their capacity with fugitives who had fled to them for shelter. Sickness soon began to prevail, the public works were discontinued, and private industry was greatly diminished. A gloom rested over the entire colony, and the population fell off.

At the end of two years after the massacre, the number of inhabitants had been reduced to two thousand. Much sympathy was manifested for the suffering colonists by the people of England. The city of London sent them liberal assistance, and private individuals subscribed to their need. King James was aroused into an affection of generous sympathy, and sent over to the colony a supply of muskets which had been condemned as worthless in England.

The whites recovered from their gloom, and on their part began to form plans for the extermination of their foes. During the next ten years expeditions were sent against the Indians at frequent intervals. The object kept sternly in view was to either destroy the savages altogether, or force them back from the seaboard into the interior. As late as 1630 it was ordered by the General Assembly that no peace should be made with the Indians.

CHAPTER VII.

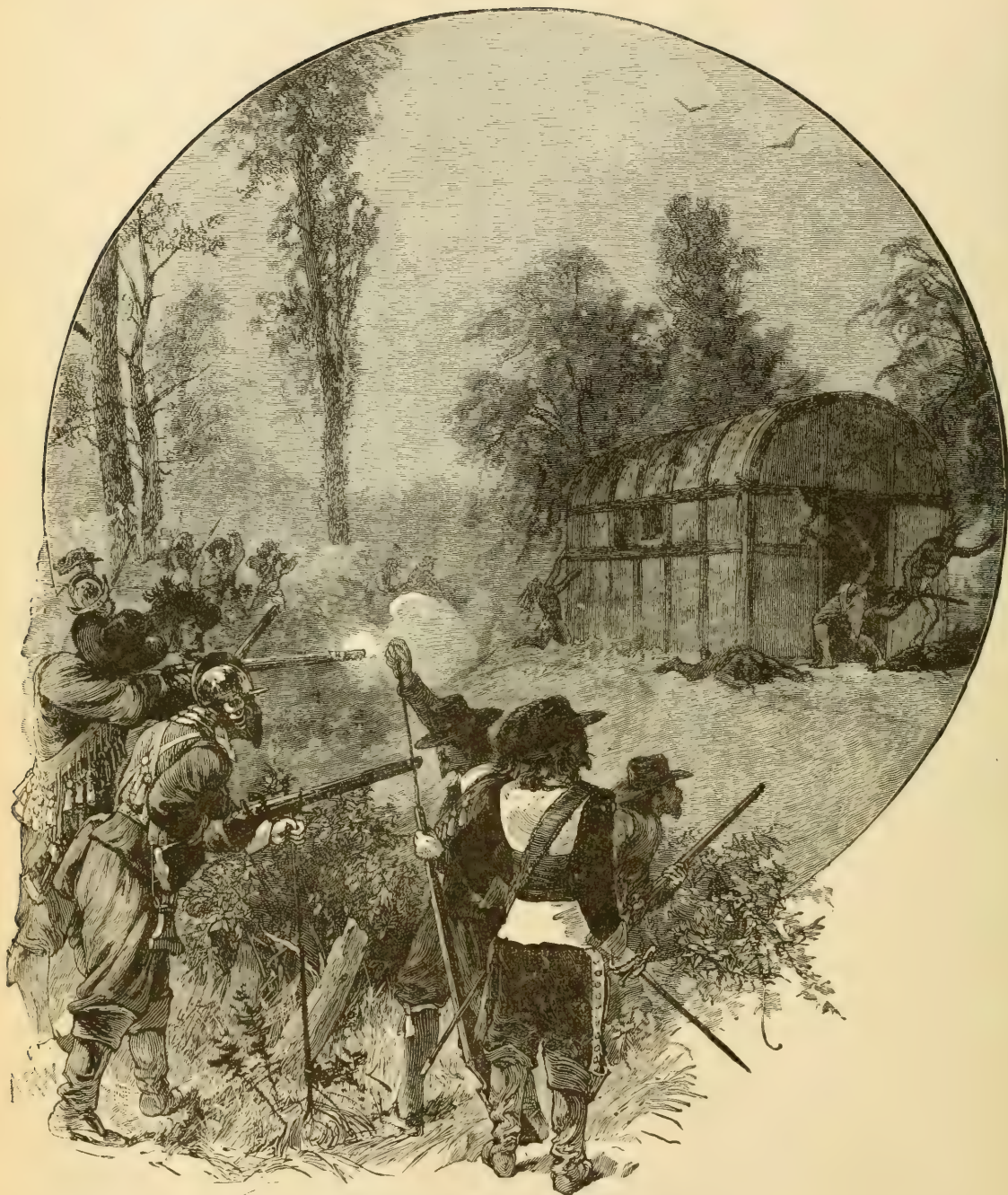
STORY OF THE VIRGINIA COLONY.

IN 1644, the aged Opechacanough once more struck for the inheritance of his forests, by another attempt to cut off, simultaneously, the scattered colonial population. Scarcely had the warfare begun, and the English aroused to resistance, when the Indians were struck with panic and fled. The Virginians pursued them vigorously and killed three hundred. The chief was taken prisoner, then inhumanly wounded. His proud spirit suffered from his being kept as a public spectacle, and he welcomed relief by death.

Charles I. had perished on the scaffold; and the powerful mind of Cromwell led the policy of England. To promote her commercial prosperity, he continued, and perfected a system of colonial oppression in respect to trade, by the celebrated "Navigation Act." By this the colonies were not allowed to find a market for themselves, and sell their produce to the highest bidder, but were obliged to carry it direct to the mother country. The English merchants bought it at their own price; and thus they, and not the colonist, made the profit on the fruits of his industry. At the same time the act prohibited any but English vessels from conveying merchandise to the colonies; thus compelling them to obtain their supplies of the English merchant, of course at such prices as he chose to fix upon his goods. Even free traffic among the colonists was prohibited.

Charles II. was restored in 1660. Berkeley, after various changes, was at the moment exercising the office of Governor under the authority of the Assembly of Virginia, by whom he had been elected. The fires of rejoicing were kindled in the province, and Berkeley changed his style, and issued his mandates in the name of Charles. The monarch afterwards confirmed him in his office.

Berkeley was accused of favoring the Indians for the sake of the monopoly in the beaver-trade, and the settlers resolved that if he would not protect them, they would protect themselves. They went sullenly to their homes, and awaited what they knew was certain to come.



Some months later, several persons on their way to church came upon a mortally-wounded settler in front of his own door, while a friendly Indian lay dead a few feet away. The neighbor lived long enough to say that some Doeg warriors were the cause of their deaths. The alarm quickly spread, and in a brief while thirty men had taken the trail and were in hot pursuit. Crossing the river twenty miles above the trail forked, and the pursuers divided into two parties.

Bloody Conflicts with the Indians.

One of these speedily came upon a Doeg wigwam, and here the pursuers killed eleven of the Indians. It is more than likely they were the murderers. Almost at the same time the other party discovered a wigwam and opened fire, without waiting to ask questions. After killing fourteen it was found they were not Doegs, but Susquehannocks. However, the settlers concluded they had avenged the death of their neighbor and went home.

The surrounding tribes were roused to fury. The peril was so imminent that Virginia and Maryland sent out a force of a thousand men under Major Thomas Truman, of Maryland, and Colonel John Washington, of Virginia, great-grandfather of George Washington. They surrounded a strong fort on the Piscataway, in which the Susquehannocks had taken refuge, with their women and children. Before opening fire, six of the chiefs were called out for a conference. They denied that any of their tribe had harmed the whites, saying that the Senecas, who had fled northward, were the offenders. Major Truman was satisfied and assured them they should suffer no harm.

The Virginians thought the major was too credulous. The next day, when the mutilated bodies of a settler and his family, that had recently been murdered, were brought into camp, the infuriated soldiers seized five of the chiefs who had come out for another conference, and put them to death. This piece of treachery filled the authorities in Maryland and Virginia with indignation. Truman was tried by the Maryland legislature, and found guilty of causing the death of the five Indians contrary to the laws of God and of nations. When Washington took his seat in the Virginia assembly at Jamestown, Governor Berkeley in his opening address pointedly rebuked him. This was the only punishment Washington received, and the records do not show what was done with Truman, when found guilty.

Again the Indians were aroused to deeds of atrocity. They assailed

the settlers along the Rappahannock, James and York rivers, with the fury of wild beasts, killing more than fifty during the following winter.

The people awoke in their might. They desired to organize for self-defense, and in a peremptory manner demanded for their leader Nathaniel Bacon, a popular young lawyer. Berkeley refused to grant him a commission. New murders occurring, Bacon assumed command, and with his followers departed for the Indian war. Instigated by the aristocracy, Berkeley declared him and his adherents rebels.

The People Again Aroused.

The people, in a fresh insurrection, required of the governor the election of a new house of burgesses; and he was forced to submit. Bacon having returned from his expedition, was elected a member for Henrico county. Popular liberty now prevailed, and laws were passed with which Berkeley was highly displeased. Bacon, fearing treachery, withdrew to the country. The people rallied around him, and he returned to Jamestown at the head of five hundred armed men.


Berkeley met them, and, baring his breast, exclaimed, "a fair mark, shoot." Bacon declared that he had come only for a commission, their lives being in danger from the savages. The commission was issued, and Bacon again departed for the Indian warfare. Berkeley in the meantime withdrew to the seashore, and there collecting numbers of seamen and loyalists, he came up the river with a fleet, landed his army at Jamestown, and again proclaimed Bacon and his party rebels and traitors.

Bacon having quelled the Indians, only a small band of his followers remained in arms. With these he hastened to Jamestown, and Berkeley fled at his approach. In order that its few dwellings should no more shelter their oppressors, the inhabitants set them on fire, the owners of the best houses applying the match with their own hands. Then leaving that endeared and now desolated spot, Bacon pursued the royalists to the Rappahannock, where the Virginians, hitherto of Berkeley's party, deserted and joined his standard. His enemies were at his mercy; but his exposure to the night air had induced disease, and he died.

The party of Bacon, now without a leader, broke into fragments, and the royalists were again in the ascendant. As the principal adherents of Bacon, hunted and made prisoners, were one by one brought before Berkeley, he adjudged them, with insulting taunts, to instant and ignominious death.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE SETTLEMENT OF MARYLAND.

O go back a little in our history, previous to the events narrated in the preceding chapter, Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, and the hero of his age, formed, in 1627, the project of sending to America a colony of his subjects from Sweden and Finland. About ten years afterwards, in 1638, they came over headed by Peter Minuets, and settled at Christiana Creek, on the west side of the Delaware, calling that river Swedeland stream, and the country, New Sweden.

Though this was the first effectual settlement, yet the Dutch had, in 1629, purchased of the natives a tract of land extending from Cape Henlopen to the mouth of the Delaware river. A small colony conducted by De Vries came from Holland, and settled near Lewiston. They perished by the savages; but the Dutch continuing to claim the country, dissensions arose between them and the Swedish emigrants.

In 1631 William Clayborne obtained from Charles I. a license to traffic in those parts of America for which there was not already a patent granted. Clayborne planted a small colony on Kent island, in Chesapeake Bay, opposite to the spot where Annapolis now stands.

George Calvert, afterwards Lord Baltimore, had represented, in the English Parliament, his native district of Yorkshire. The favor of the monarch and the principal ministers had been manifested by influential appointments at court; but these he resigned to make a public profession of the Roman Catholic faith. To enjoy his religion unmolested, he wished to emigrate to some vacant tract in America. He had fixed on Virginia as a desirable location, and accordingly made a visit to that colony. The people there would not encourage a settlement, unless an oath was taken, to which he could not in conscience subscribe. Finding he must seek an asylum elsewhere, he explored the country to the north, and then returned to England. The Queen, Henrietta Maria, daughter to Henry IV. of France, gave to the territory the name of Maryland, and Lord Baltimore obtained it by a royal patent.

He died in London in 1632, before his patent passed to a legal form; but his son, Cecil Calvert, the second Lord Baltimore, by the influence of Sir Robert Cecil, obtained the grant intended for his father. By this patent he held the country from the Potomac to the 40th degree of north latitude;



CECIL, LORD BALTIMORE.

and thus, by a mere act of the crown, what had long before been granted to Virginia was now taken away; as what was now granted was subsequently given to Penn, to the extent of a degree. Hence long and obstinate altercations ensued.

Lord Baltimore appointed as governor his brother, Leonard Calvert, who, with two hundred emigrants, sailed for America near the close of 1633, and arrived at the Potomac early in 1634. Here they purchased of the natives Yamaco, one of their settlements, to which was given the name of St. Mary. Calvert thus secured by a pacific course comfortable habitations, some improved lands, and the friendship

of the natives. Other circumstances served to increase the prosperity of the colony. The country was pleasant, great religious freedom existed, and a liberal charter had been granted, which allowed the proprietor, aided by the freemen, to pass laws, without reserving to the crown the right of rejecting them. Emigrants accordingly soon flocked to the province from the other colonies and from England.

Thus had the earliest settlers of this beautiful portion of our country established themselves, without the sufferings endured by the pioneers of

former settlements. The proprietary government, generally so detrimental, proved here a nursing mother. Lord Baltimore expended for the colonists, within a few years, forty thousand pounds; and they, "out of desire to return some testimony of gratitude," voted in their assembly "such a subsidy as the low and poor estate of the colony could bear."

Lord Baltimore invited the Puritans of Massachusetts, of whom we shall read later, to emigrate to Maryland, offering them "free liberty of



MOCK SUNS, SEEN BY EARLY EXPLORERS.

religion." They rejected this, as they did a similar proposition from Cromwell, to remove to the West Indies. The restless, intriguing Clayborne, the evil genius of Maryland, had been constantly on the alert to establish a claim to the country, and to subvert the government of the good proprietary. In his traffic with the natives he had learned their dispositions, and he wrought them to jealous hostility. In England the authority of the long Parliament now superseded that of the king, and those who derived their authority from him; and of this, not only Clayborne, but other disorderly subjects of Lord Baltimore, were inclined to take undue advantage. Thus the fair dawn of this rising settlement was early overcast.

In 1621 Sir Francis Wyatt arrived as governor, bringing from the company in England a more perfect and permanent constitution for the colony. The power of making laws was vested in the general assembly. No regulations, however, could be enforced until they had received the sanction of the general court of the company in England. At the same time the orders of the company were not binding upon the colony, without the sanction of their assembly. These liberal concessions not only gratified the settlers, but encouraged emigration; and a large number accordingly accompanied Governor Wyatt to the province. This year cotton was first planted in Virginia, and "the plentiful coming up of the seed," was regarded by the planters with curiosity and interest.

Butchering Men and Women.

Opechacanough, the brother and successor of Powhatan, had determined to extirpate the whites, and regain the country for its savage lords. For this purpose he formed a conspiracy to massacre all the English; and during four years he was, with impenetrable secrecy, concerting his plan. To each tribe its station was allotted, and the part it was to act prescribed. On the 22d of March, 1622, at midday, they rushed upon the English in all their settlements, and butchered men, women, and children, without pity or remorse. In one hour nearly a fourth part of the whole colony was cut off. The slaughter would have been universal, if compassion, or a sense of duty, had not moved a converted Indian to whom the secret was communicated, to reveal it to his master on the night before the massacre. This was done in time to save Jamestown and the adjacent settlements.

A bloody war ensued. The English, by their arms and discipline, were more than a match for the Indians, and they retaliated in such a manner as left the colonists for a long time free from savage molestation. They also received considerable accessions of lands by appropriating those of the conquered natives.

CHAPTER IX.

THE LANDING OF THE PILGRIMS.

IN 1592 a law was passed requiring all persons to attend the established worship, under penalty of banishment, and if they returned, of death. Among those who could not conscientiously comply with these exactions were John Robinson and his congregation, of the sect of Separatists, in the north of England.

To enjoy their religion, the pastor and his whole flock determined to exile themselves to Holland. But this was a difficult undertaking. Once they embarked with their families and goods at Boston, in Lincolnshire. But the treacherous captain had plotted with English officers, who came on board the vessel, took their effects, searched the persons of the whole company for money, and then, in presence of a gazing multitude, led them on shore and to prison. They were soon released, except seven of the principal men, who were detained and brought to trial, but at length freed.

Again they bargained with a Dutch shipmaster at Hull, who was to take them in from a common hard by. At the time appointed the women and children sailed to the place of rendezvous in a small bark, and the men came by land. The bark had grounded; but the Dutch captain sent his boat and took the men from the strand. But, in the meantime, the authorities of Hull had notice; and the Dutch commander, at the sight of a large armed company, having a fair wind, with oaths "hoisted anchor and away," though the Pilgrims even wept, thus to leave their wives and children.

Behold these desolate women, the mothers of a future nation, their husbands forcibly carried off to sea, while on land an armed multitude are approaching! They are taken, and dragged from one magistrate to another, while their children, cold and hungry and affrighted, are weeping and clinging around them. But their piteous condition and Christian demeanor softened at length the hearts of their persecutors, and even gained friends to their cause.

The men, in the meantime, encountered one of the most terrific sea-storms ever known, continuing fourteen days, during seven of which they

saw neither sun, moon or stars. At length they all arrived in Holland. They settled at first in Amsterdam. They did not, however, find cause to be satisfied, and they removed to Leyden. Here, by hard labor and frugal honesty, they lived highly respected; but after a few years they experienced evils which made them think of another removal. Not only were their own toils constant and severe, but they were obliged to employ their children, so that these were necessarily deprived of education. And the health of the young often fell a sacrifice to the length of time and confined positions in which they labored. Some died, and some became deformed.

Choosing the Wilderness for a Home.

Their morals also were likely to suffer from the habitual profanation of the Sabbath, which they must necessarily witness, and especially from contact with a disbanded soldiery, at this time residing at Leyden. The Pilgrims had heard of America, and in its wilderness they believed they might serve God unmolested, and found a church, where not only the oppressed in England, but unborn generations, might enjoy a pure worship. The Dutch wished them to colonize under their government. But they loved their country, though she had shaken them from her lap; and they sent agents to England to procure, by the influence of Sir Edwin Sandys, a patent under the Virginia Company.

By the aid of Sandys the petitioners obtained the patent. But they needed money. To provide this their agents formed a stock company, jointly, with some men of business in London, of whom Mr. Thomas Weston was the principal; they to furnish the capital, the emigrants to pledge their labor for seven years, at ten pounds per man; and the profits of the enterprise, all houses, lands, gardens and fields, to be divided at the end of that time among the stockholders, according to their respective shares.

They then prepared two small vessels, the *Mayflower* and the *Speedwell*; but these would hold only a part of the company, and it was decided that the younger and more active should go, while the older, among whom was the pastor, should remain. If they were successful they were to send for those behind; if unsuccessful to return, though poor, to them.

Previous to their separation this memorable church worshipped together for the last time, on an appointed day, when they humbled themselves by fasting, and "sought of the Lord a right way for themselves and their

children." When they must no longer tarry, their brethren accompanied them from Leyden to the shore of Delft-Haven. Here the venerable pastor knelt with his departing flock around him; and the wanderers, while tears rolled down their cheeks, heard for the last time, his beloved voice in exhortation and in prayer for them. "But they knew they were PILGRIMS, and lifted up their eyes to heaven, their dearest country, and quieted their spirits." From Delft-Haven they sailed to Southampton in England.

Among the leaders of the party was Elder Brewster, who at this time was fifty-six, but sound in body as in spirit. Of the seven who were taken at Boston, it was Brewster who was most severely dealt with. John Carver was near his age, beloved and trusted, as he was good and wise. William Bradford was strong, bold and enduring; but withal, a meek and prudent Christian. Next these, in honor, superior in native endowments, as in estate and family descent, was Edward Winslow. He was at this time twenty-six. Bradford was thirty-two. Allerton and Hopkins were also leading men. Miles Standish had been an officer in an army, sent by Elizabeth to aid the Dutch against the Spaniards; and he, as was the case with Winslow, falling in with Robinson's people about three years before their removal from Holland, accompanied them to America.

Last Look of their Native Land.

After remaining in Southampton a fortnight, the Pilgrims put to sea. But misfortunes befalling they returned, left the *Speedwell*, and finally, to the number of one hundred, they set sail from Plymouth, in the solitary *Mayflower*. On the 6th of September they took their last, sad look of their native shore. After a stormy and perilous passage they made land on the 9th of November, at Cape Cod. The mouth of the Hudson had been selected as the place of their settlement, and they accordingly steered southerly; but soon falling in with dangerous breakers, and all, especially the women, being impatient to leave the ship, they determined to return and settle on or near the Cape. The next day they turned the point of that singular projection, and entered the harbor now called Provincetown.

They fell on their knees to thank the kind Power who had preserved them amidst so many dangers, and then "they did," says Cotton Mather, "as the light of nature itself directed them, immediately, in the harbor sign an instrument as the foundation of their future and needful government;" solemnly combining themselves in a civil body politic, to enact all

such ordinances, and frame all such constitutions and offices, as from time to time should be thought most meet and convenient for the general good; all which they bound themselves to obey.

This simple, but august compact, was the first of a series by which the fetters of a vast system of political oppression have been broken. Upon some parts of the old continent that system still remains, building upon the fiction that sovereigns own the world and its inhabitants, having derived all from God, and that the people are to have only such a measure of personal freedom and such possessions as kings may choose to bestow. Here was assumed for the first time the grand principle of a voluntary *confederacy* of independent men, instituting government for the good, not of the governors, but of the governed.

First Encounter with the Savages.

There were the same number of persons on board the *Mayflower* as had left England; but one, a servant, had died, and one, a male child, Peregrine White, was born on the passage. Carver was immediately chosen governor, and Standish captain.

No comfortable home or smiling friends awaited the Pilgrims. They who went on shore waded through the cold surf to a homeless desert. But a place to settle must be found, and no time was to be lost. The shallop unfortunately needed repairs, and in the meantime a party set out to make discoveries by land. They found "a little corn and many graves;" and in a second excursion they encountered the chilling blasts of a November snow-storm, which laid in some the foundation of mortal disease. The country was wooded, and tolerably stocked with game.

When the shallop was finished Carver, Bradford and Winslow, with a party of eighteen, manned the feeble bark and set forth. Steering along the western shore of Cape Cod they made, in three days, the inner circuit of the bay. "It was," says one of the number, "very cold, for the water froze our clothes, and made them many times like coats of iron." They landed occasionally to explore; and at night, inclosed with only a slight barricade of boughs, they stretched themselves upon the hard ground.

On the second morning, as their devotions closed, they received a shower of Indian arrows, when, sallying out, they discharged their guns, and the savages fled. Again they offered prayers with thanksgiving; and proceeding on their way, their shallop was nearly wrecked by a wintry

storm of terrible violence. After unspeakable dangers, they sheltered themselves under the lee of a small island, where, amidst darkness and rain, they land, and with difficulty make a fire. In the morning they find themselves at the entrance of a harbor. The next day was the Sabbath. They rested and kept it holy, though all that was dear to them depended on their promptness.

The next day, the 22d of December, a day ever to be observed in the annals of New England, the Pilgrims landed on the rock of Plymouth. Finding the harbor good, springs abundant, and the land promising for tillage, they decided to settle here, and named the place from that which they last left in England. In a few days they brought the Mayflower to the harbor, and began building, having first divided the whole community into nineteen families, and assigned them contiguous



THE "MAYFLOWER" IN PLYMOUTH HARBOR.

lots, of size according to that of the family, about eight feet front and fifty deep to each person. Each man was to build his own house. Besides this, the company were to make a building of twenty feet square, as a common receptacle. This was soonest completed, but was unfortunately destroyed by fire.

Their huts went up but slowly, for though their hearts were strong, yet their hands had grown feeble through fatigue, hardship and scanty fare, and many were wasting with consumptions. Daily some yielded to sickness, and daily some sunk to the grave. Before spring half of their number, among whom were the governor and his wife, lay buried on the shore. Yet they never repined, or repented of the step they had taken; and when, in April, the *Mayflower* left them, not one so much as spoke of returning to England; but they rather confessed the continual mercies of a "wonder-working Providence," which had carried them through so many dangers, and was making them the honored instruments of so great a work.

Welcome from an Indian Chief.

The Pilgrims had as yet seen but few of the natives, and those hostile, when Samoset, an Indian who had learned a little English at Penobscot, boldly entered their village, with a cheerful "Welcome Englishmen." He soon came again, with four others, among whom was Tisquantum, who had spread favorable reports of the English among his countrymen, and was afterwards of great service as an interpreter. They gave notice that Massasoit, the sachem of the Pokanokets, was hard by. Appearing on a hill, with a body of attendants, armed, and painted with gaudy colors, the chief desired that some one should be sent to confer with him. Edward Winslow, famed for the sweetness of his disposition and behavior, as well as for talents, courage and efficiency, was wisely chosen. Captain Standish found means (for neither civil or military organization had been neglected) to make a martial show, with drums and trumpets, which gave the savages wonderful delight.

The sachem, on coming into the village, was so well pleased with the attentions paid him, that he acknowledged the authority of the King of England, and entered into an alliance, offensive and defensive, with the colonists, which remained inviolate for more than fifty years.

In July, Edward Winslow and Stephen Hopkins went on an embassy to Massasoit, at Montaup. Their object was to negotiate a traffic in furs, and to preserve amity with the natives. Much to his delight they gave the sachem a red coat, from Governor Bradford, who had succeeded Carver. They hinted that his subjects were somewhat too free with their presence at Plymouth, though himself and his particular friends should always be welcome. They mentioned that on their first arrival they had found a

small quantity of buried corn, which in their necessity they had appropriated, but they now wished to discover and remunerate the owners; and finally, they requested that the Pokanokets would sell their furs to the colony.

Massosoit gathered his council. "Am I not," said he, "commander of the country? Is not such a town mine?—and such an one?—going on to the number of thirty—and finally, should not all bring their furs to him if he wished it?" The Sannops ejaculated a hearty affirmative to each successive proposition, and the matter was happily adjusted. The trade thus secured to the colony proved of great consequence.

The ship *Fortune* arrived in November, and brought over as many as thirty-five persons to join the settlers. The corn which they had found in their excursions from Cape Cod providentially saved them;



TREATY BETWEEN PLYMOUTH COLONY AND MASSASOIT.

for they had planted it, and the crop was their dependence, scanty though it proved, for their second winter.

Massasoit feared the Narragansetts, and was doubtless on that account desirous of cultivating the friendship of the English. Canonicus, the old hereditary chieftain of that confederacy, perhaps offended at this intimacy, or regarding the whites as intruders, meditated a war against them; which he openly intimated by sending to Governor Bradford a bunch of arrows tied with the skin of a rattlesnake. Bradford stuffed the skin with powder and ball and sent it back; and nothing more was heard, at that time, of war.

News came to Plymouth that Massosoit was sick. Accompanied by

"one Master John Hampden," believed by some to be the celebrated Englishman of that name, then on a visit to the colony, Winslow taking suitable articles, went to Montaup. He found the Indians bewailing, and practicing their noisy powows or incantations around the sightless chieftain. Affectionately he extended his hand and exclaimed. "Art thou Winsnow?" (He could not articulate the liquid l.) "Art thou Winsnow? But, O, Winsnow! I shall never see thee more." Winslow administered cordials, and he recovered. He then revealed a conspiracy which the Indians had formed and requested him to join. "But now," said he, "I know that the English love me." He was very grateful for their kindness.

The Conspirators Put to Death.

Agreeably to Massasoit's advice, that a bold stroke should be struck, and the heads of the plot taken off, the intrepid Standish, with a party of only eight, went into the hostile country, attacked a house where the principal conspirators had met, and put them to death. In justice to the Indians, it should be stated that they were provoked to this conspiracy by the lawless aggressions of "Master Weston's men." These were a colony of sixty Englishmen, sent over in June, 1622, by Thomas Weston. Though hospitably received at Plymouth they stole the young corn from the stalk, and thus brought want and distress upon the settlers the ensuing winter and spring. They then made a short-lived and pernicious settlement at Weymouth. The Pilgrims had been more alarmed at this Indian conspiracy, on account of the horrible news from Virginia, of the great Indian massacre there.

Notwithstanding all the hardships—all the wisdom and constancy, of the colonists, the partners of the concern in London complained of small returns; and even had the meanness to send a vessel to rival them in their trade with the Indians. Winslow went to England and negotiated a purchase for himself and seven of his associates in the colony, by which the property was vested in them; and they sold out to the colony at large, for the consideration of a monopoly of the trade with the Indians for six years.

New Plymouth now began to flourish. For the land being divided, each man labored for himself and his family, and not for the public, or for distant usurers. Their government was a pure democracy, resembling that now exercised in a town meeting. Each male inhabitant had a vote; the

Governor had two. At first some delicacy was felt, as they had no charter, being north of the bounds of the Virginia company, but at length they proceeded to the exercise of all the powers of self-government. After the establishment of the Grand Council of Plymouth, of which mention will soon be made, they received from it a charter, by which they exercised these rights, under the authority of England.

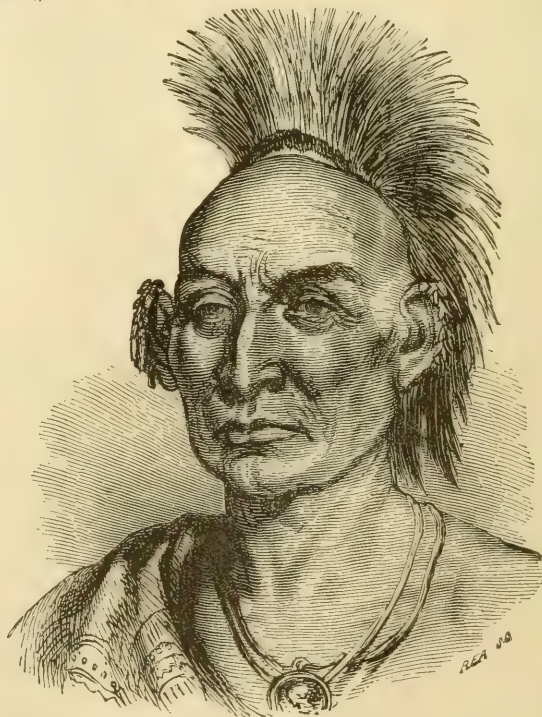
Numbers of their brethren of the church at Leyden came over within the first few years to join the settlement; and Winslow relates that the people of Plymouth gave a thousand pounds to assist them to emigrate. But the good Robinson was not permitted to enter the land of his hopes and affections. He died in Leyden, 1625, to the great grief of the Pilgrims, who had kept their church without a pastor, Elder Brewster officiating, in hopes, until they heard of his death, again to enjoy his ministrations. A part of his family came to America.

Character of the Pilgrims.

Ten years after its first settlement New Plymouth had three hundred inhabitants; and had no other colony followed, there is every reason to believe they would have sustained themselves. Their history forms a striking contrast with that of colonies where men were sent by others to labor in distant lands, or induced by worldly motives to enlist under ambitious leaders. Like the Captain of their Salvation, the Pilgrims were self-devoted. No man took from them, but they voluntarily laid down what pertained to this life, in the cheerful and assured hope of a better. Faithfulness they regarded as their concern; reward, as that of their Heavenly Master.

In December, 1620, the same month in which the Pilgrims arrived on the American coast, James I. issued a charter to the Duke of Lenox, the Marquisses of Buckingham and Hamilton, the Earls of Arundel and Warwick, Sir Ferdinando Gorges, and thirty-four associates, styling them the "Grand Council of Plymouth, for planting and governing New England in America." This patent granted them the territory between the "fortieth and forty-eighth degrees of north latitude, and extending throughout the main land from sea to sea." This territory, which had been previously called North Virginia, now received the name of New England, by royal authority.

From this patent were derived all the subsequent grants under which the New England colonies were settled. But either from sinister motives, sheer ignorance of the geography of the country, or reckless disregard to



TYPES OF NORTH AMERICAN INDIANS.

consequences, the affairs of this corporation were transacted in a manner so confused that endless dispute and difficulties were occasioned.

Sir Ferdinando Gorges had been an officer in the navy of Elizabeth, and a companion of Sir Walter Raleigh. Various circumstances had bent his mind strongly to the ambition of founding a colony in America. Perhaps he imagined it would become a principality or a dukedom. He was hence the prime mover in getting up the Grand Council of Plymouth, and was made its president. Similar motives actuated Captain Mason, and he became its secretary. They were simply indulging in delusions.

More Colonists Arrive from England.

Mason procured from the Grand Council the absurd grant of "all the land from the river of Naumkeag (Salem), round Cape Ann to the mouth of the Merrimack, and all the country lying between the two rivers, and all islands within three miles of the coast." The district was to be called Mariana.

The next year Gorges and Mason jointly obtained of the council another patent of "all the lands between the Merrimack and Kennebec Rivers, extending back to the Great Lakes, and river of Canada." This tract received the name of Lacaonia. Under this grant some feeble settlements were made at the mouth of the Piscataqua, and as far up the river as the present town of Dover.

The persecution of the Puritans continued unabated during the reign of James I., the successor of Elizabeth, and many of the ablest divines of England, obliged to feel the rigor of the law or violate their consciences, were wandering in foreign lands or meditating a removal. Among the latter was Mr. White, a minister of Dorchester, in the south of England—a Puritan, though not a Separatist. Having learned what godly quietness his brethren of New Plymouth enjoyed, he turned his eyes in that direction, and projected another colony to America. Encouraged by him, as early as 1624, a few persons established themselves, first at Cape Ann, and afterwards on the site of Salem.

Their representations of the country, together with the solicitation of White, induced several gentlemen of Dorchester to purchase of the Grand Council of Plymouth, in 1628, a patent "of that part of New England which lies between three miles north of the Merrimack River and three miles to south of the Charles River, and extending from the Atlantic

to the South Sea." Thus the avaricious council covered by a second grant lands which they had already some time previously conveyed by a former one to Mason.

John Endicott, a rugged Puritan, was the leader; and in Salem began the "wilderness-work for the colony of Massachusetts." He brought over his family, and other emigrants to the number of one hundred. Roger Conant and two others, from New Plymouth, had selected for him this spot, then called Naumkeag, for their settlement, and Conant was there to give to Endicott and his party such welcome to the New World as the desert forest could afford.

The next year the proprietors obtained of King Charles a charter, confirming the patent of the Council of Plymouth, and conveying to them powers of government. They were incorporated by the name of the "Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay in New England." The first general court of the company was held in England, when they fixed upon a form of government for the colony, and appointed Endicott governor. About three hundred persons sailed for America during this year, a part of whom joined Mr. Endicott at Salem, and the remainder, exploring the coast for a better station, laid the foundation of Charlestown.

John Winthrop Chosen Governor.

In the meantime other pious Puritans, with similar views to those of White, were meditating similar projects in other and opposite parts of England. The pious family of the Earl of Lincoln, in the Northeast, regarded the religious enterprise with enthusiastic admiration; as did also John Winthrop, a native of the county of Suffolk, and others of rank and fortune. A more extensive emigration was now thought of than had been before attempted. But an objection arose; the colony was to be governed by a council residing in England. To obviate this hindrance, the company agreed to form a council of those who should emigrate, and who might hold their sessions thereafter in the new settlement.

On the election, the excellent John Winthrop was chosen governor. He had afterwards for his eulogy a praise beyond that of any other person in the colony. "He was," say they, "unto us as a mother, parent-like distributing his goods, and gladly bearing our infirmities, yet did he ever maintain the figure and honor of his place with the spirit of a true gentleman." The company had determined to colonize only their "best." Eight

hundred accompanied Winthrop, and, during the season, seventeen vessels were employed, bringing over, in all, fifteen hundred persons.

Winthrop and his friends found no luxurious table spread for them in the wilderness; but they freely imparted the stores which they brought to the famished and enfeebled sufferers whom they met. Regarding Salem as sufficiently peopled, the newly-arrived located themselves without delay beyond its limits. Their first care, wherever they went, was to provide for the ministration of the gospel. In August Charlestown had a church, at the head of which was the ardent, eccentric and benevolent Wilson—ever ready to encourage the desponding, either in poetry or prose. Dorchester soon after had a church, gathered by Mr. Warham, who afterwards emigrated to Windsor, Connecticut. Boston, Roxbury, Lynn and Watertown followed in their order; so that, at the end of two years, Massachusetts enjoyed the exceedingly rare distinction at that time of having seven churches, supplied with devout and learned ministers.



JOHN WINTHROP

Unused, as many of this company of settlers were, to aught but plenty and ease, the hardships before them, though borne with a willing mind, were too much for the body, especially in the case of women. Many died, though in the joy and peace of believing. Among these was the beloved Arbella Johnson, of the noble house of Lincoln. Her husband, Isaac Johnson, the principal of the emigrants in respect to wealth, felt her loss so severely that he soon followed her to the grave. He made a liberal bequest to the colony, and died "in sweet peace."

CHAPTER X.

KING PHILIP'S WAR.

PHILIP was the younger of the two sons of Massasoit. He had become embittered against the English by circumstances attending the death of his brother, which he ascribed to them; and though he was thus left sole chieftain of the Pokanokets, yet he deeply felt his loss, and bitterly resented it. The extension

of the whites had now alarmed the savage nations. They remembered that their ancestors had reigned sole lords of the forest. Now their hunting-grounds were abridged; and the deer, the bear, and other animals on which they depended for subsistence, were frightened away by the hum of civilization.

The new race, whom their fathers received when a poor and feeble band, were now gradually spreading themselves over the land, and assuming to be its sovereigns. Nothing remained to the native savage but to be driven by degrees from the occupations and possessions of his forefathers, or to arouse, and by a mighty effort extirpate the intruders. This was the spirit which, emanating from Philip,



KING PHILIP.

spread itself throughout the various Indian tribes. The Narragansetts, so long friendly, were now under the rule of Conanchet, the son of Miantonomoh, and doubtless he remembered the benefactions which his father had bestowed upon the whites, and their refusal to hear his last plea for mercy.

Philip had not proceeded farther than to work upon the minds of the Indians by secret machinations, when Sausaman, one of the natives whom Eliot, the famous missionary to the Indians, had instructed in Christianity

gave to the English intimations of his designs. Sausaman was soon after murdered. On investigation, the Plymouth court found that the murder was committed by three of Philip's most intimate friends, and forthwith they caused them to be executed.

The savages no longer delayed; but, on the 20th of June, Philip's warriors began by attacking Swansey, in New Plymouth. The colonists appeared in defense of the town, and the Indians fled. Receiving fresh troops from Boston, the united English force marched into the Indian towns, which on their approach were deserted. But the route of the savages was marked by the ruin of buildings which had been burned, and by the heads and hands of the English, which were fixed upon poles by the wayside. The troops finding that they could not overtake them returned to Swansey.

Reward Offered for the Capture of King Philip.

The commissioners of the colonies meeting at Boston were unanimous in deciding that the war must be prosecuted with vigor, and each colony furnished means, according to its ability. Of the thousand men which they determined to send immediately into the field, Massachusetts was to furnish five hundred and twenty-seven, Connecticut three hundred and fifteen, and Plymouth one hundred and fifty-eight. Subsequently the commissioners voted to raise double this number.

The army was sent from Swansey into the country of the Narragansetts, and negotiating, sword in hand, with that confederacy, on the 15th of July, a treaty of peace was concluded. The commissioners, among other stipulations, agreed to give forty coats to any of the Narragansetts who should bring Philip alive, twenty for his head, and two for each of his subjects, delivered as prisoners. The Indian king retreated with his warriors to a swamp at Pocasset, near Montaup. There, on the 18th, the colonists attacked them, but gained no decisive advantage. Philip then made his headquarters with the Nipmucks; but by the spirit of his destructive movements, he seemed to be everywhere present.

In August it was clear that the Nipmuck Indians, living on the northern tributaries of the Thames, were making ready to go upon the war-path, and Captain Edward Hutchinson and twenty troopers were sent to hold a conference with the savages. When near Brookfield they fell into ambush and eight were killed and four wounded, Captain Hutchinson being among the latter. The survivors managed to reach Brookfield and give the alarm.

Every one in the little village knew what was coming, and the inhabitants, numbering less than a hundred, ran pell-mell into the only house which was strong enough to offer any chance of defence. The men had barely time enough to catch up their guns, sling the strings of their powder-horns and bullet-pouches over their necks, when several hundred Indians rushed into the village like a cyclone. Their ear-splitting screeches filled the air, and the dusky warriors were seen dashing hither and thither, many with a musket in one hand and a blazing torch in the other.

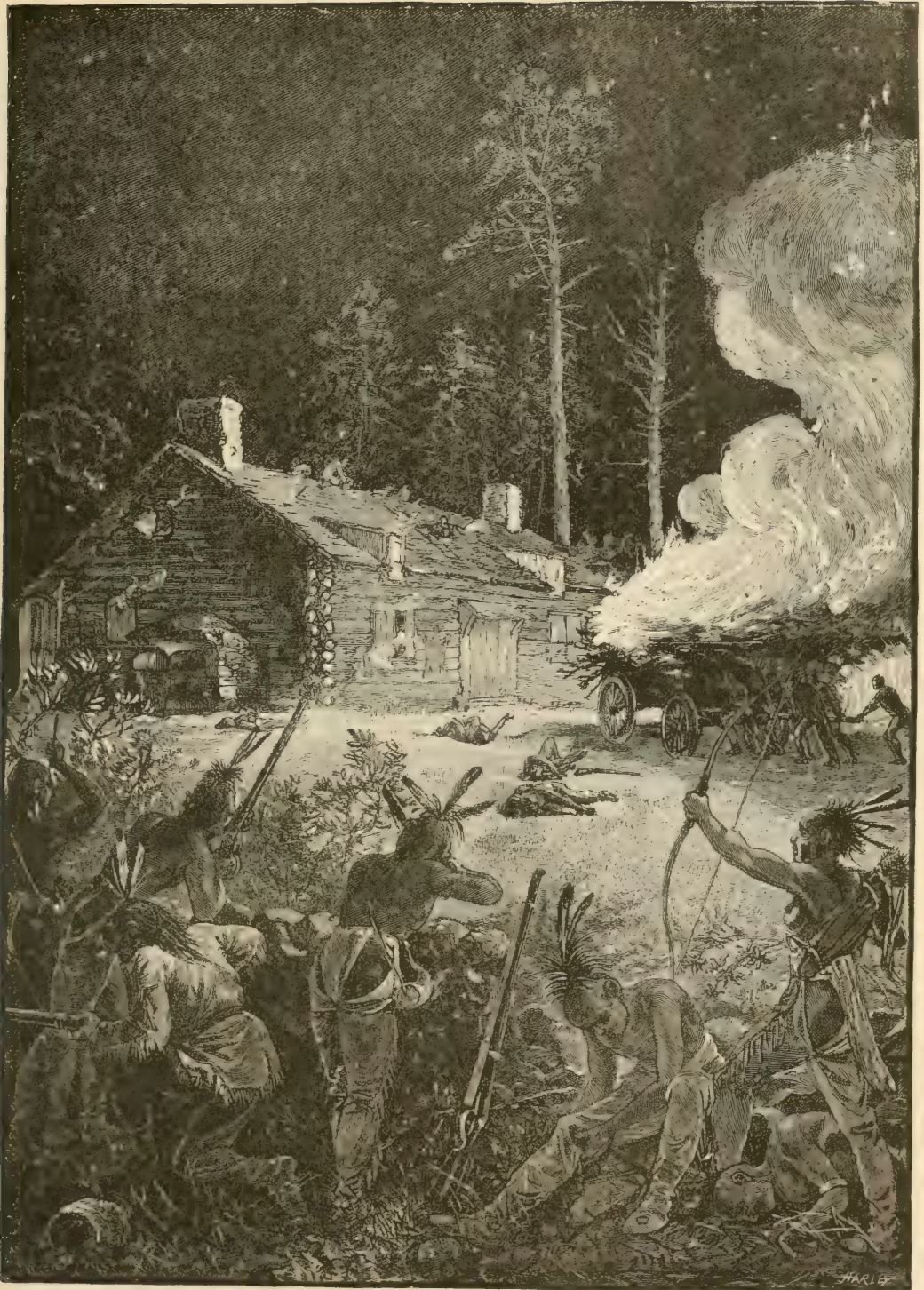
The gleaming knife and tomahawk thrust in the girdle at the waist, and the hideously painted faces caused many a mother to shudder and press her infant to her breast, while the fathers compressed their lips, raised the flints of their muskets, and took careful aim.

Savage Attack and Heroic Defense.

Every house was fired except the one in which the settlers had taken refuge. Whenever an Indian attempted to steal up to that with a torch he was riddled with rifle-balls. No more thrilling incident can be found in the early history of our country than the attack and defence of this single house at Brookfield. The first volley which the Indians poured into the structure mortally wounded one of the men. Another, who ventured near enough to be seized, was flung to the earth, his head cut off and kicked about for a foot-ball. When tired of this horrible sport the head was stuck on a pole and set up in front of his own house.

Twice a skilled messenger started out in quest of help, but the Indians were too watchful, and he was barely able to get back in time to save his own life. The night which followed was dreadful beyond description. The savages were on the alert, darting hither and thither, firing at every opening that could be detected between the logs, and continuing their efforts to destroy the structure by means of firebrands, tied to the ends of long poles. The defenders, crowded together so there was barely room to move about, were equally vigilant.

While the tired children slept the mothers peered through the crevices and gave their husbands what help they could. Sometimes in the gloom a flickering torch revealed the warrior, creeping stealthily among the ruins of the building, and a sturdy rifleman sent a ball through his body. The savage would leap high in the air with one piercing death-shriek, and that was the end of him.



ATTACK OF THE INDIANS ON BROOKFIELD.

Finding such attempts too dangerous the Indians wrapped their arrows with burning tow, and launched them against the building, but providentially the little twists of flame died out without communicating to the wood. The dense darkness was relieved after midnight by the full moon, which, however, disclosed an alarming fact: the Nipmucks had heaped a large quantity of combustible stuff at one corner of the building to which they set fire.

Under cover of the marksmen, a number of settlers dashed out and scattered the burning material. This was twice repeated. During the excitement one of the defenders reached the woods without detection and started on a desperate journey to obtain help. He had a long way to travel to obtain assistance, and the fate of the defenders was likely to be settled before it could reach them.

Air Filled with Flaming Arrows.

The attack continued without abatement all that day and the succeeding night. At times the air was filled with flaming arrows, many of which, curving high overhead, came down with such force on the roof that they stuck fast, and the smell of burning wood warned those within of their danger. Holes were hurriedly chopped through the roof and water dashed on the fire—this being repeated again and again until it seemed that one party must tire out and stop.

On the third day it looked to the brave defenders as though all hope was ended. A wagon was piled high with flax, hemp, hay, dry wood and other inflammable material; set fire, and then with long poles the savages shoved it against the building. When the choking smoke poured through the crevices between the logs, and the crackling flames began communicating, the defenders were in despair; but, at that terrible moment, a violent shower of rain came down, and not only quenched the flames but made it impossible to rekindle them.

During the same day, Major Simon Willard, of Boston, and about fifty men, learning of the sore strait of the Brookfield people, made all haste thither. The Major, who was fully seventy years old, was on his march west, and had to travel thirty miles over a bad road to reach the imperiled settlers. He and his soldiers did it in gallant style. The sun was setting when they dashed into the town, and without a minute's hesitation they went at the Indians right and left. In the course of a few hours not

a live warrior was in the neighborhood. The number killed by the Major's party, added to those who had fallen by the bullets of the defenders, was eighty.

Intending to collect a magazine and garrison at Hadley, Captain Lathrop, with a corps of the choicest young men, selected from the vicinity of Boston, was sent to transport a quantity of corn from Deerfield to that place. They were suddenly attacked by the Indians, and, though they fought with great bravery, they were almost all cut off. The brook, by which they fought, flowed red, and to this day is called "Bloody Brook." In October the Springfield Indians, who had previously been friendly, concerted with the hostile tribes, and set fire to that town. While its flames were raging they attacked Hadley.

The Colonists in Great Danger.

Dreadful beyond description was now the condition of the colonists. The object of the Indians was totally to exterminate them, and aimed equally at the lives of the armed and the defenseless. They were withheld by no restraints of religion, and their customs of war led them to the most shocking barbarities. The previous state of peace and security, in the course of which the whites had spread themselves over a large extent of country, and mingled their dwellings with those of the Indians, rendered their situation more perilous. The Indians, thus acquainted with their haunts and habits, ambushed the private path, rushed with the dreadful war-whoop upon the worshiping assembly, and during the silence of midnight set fire to the lonely dwelling, and butchered its inhabitants.

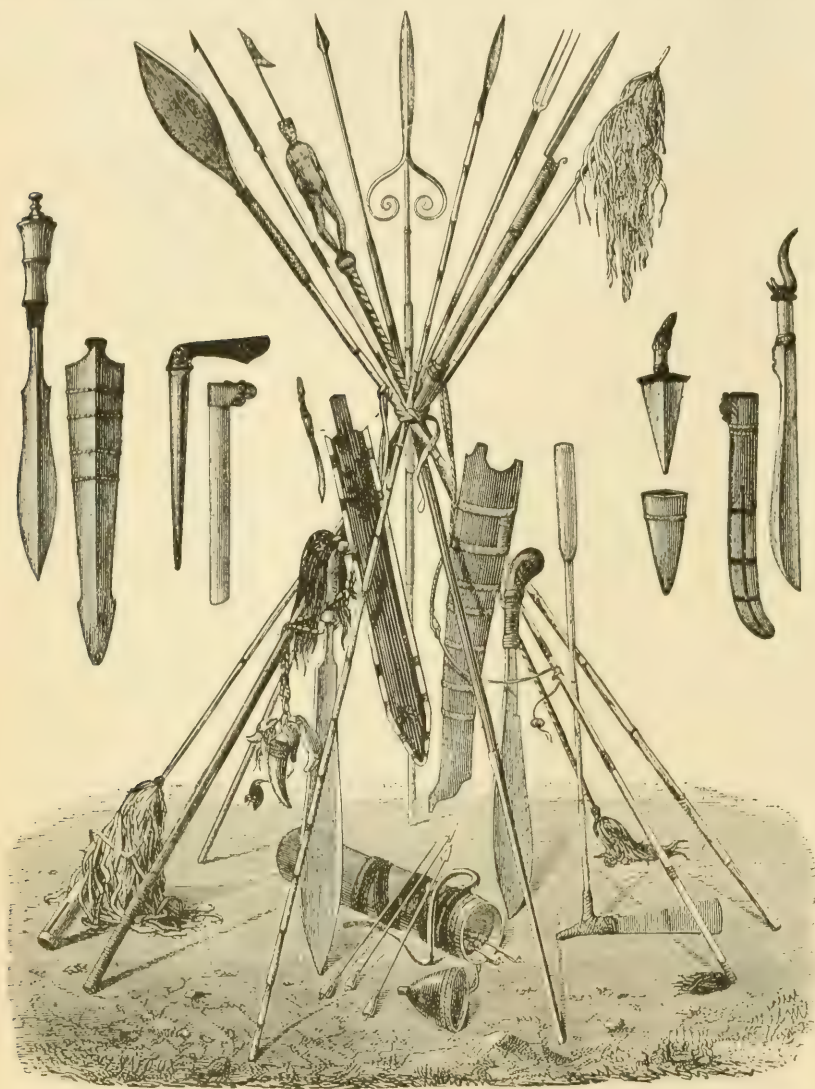
When the father of the family was to go forth in the morning he knew he might meet his death-shot, as he opened his door, from some foe concealed behind his fences or in his barn; or he might go, and return to find his children murdered during his absence. When the mother lay down at night, with her infant cradled on her arm, she knew that before morning it might be plucked from her bosom, and its brains dashed out before her eyes. Such were ever the consequences of savage warfare; but at no time during the settlement of the country were they so extensively felt as during the year through which this war continued.

Conanchet again manifested hostility. In violation of the treaty, he not only received Philip's warriors, but aided their operations against the English. On the 18th of December one thousand troops were collected

from the different colonies. Captain Church commanded the division from Massachusetts, Major Treat that from Connecticut, and Josiah Winslow, of Plymouth, was in supreme command. After a stormy night passed in

the open air, they waded through the snow sixteen miles, and about one o'clock on the afternoon of the 19th they arrived near the enemy's fortress.

It was on a rising ground in the midst of a swamp, and was so well fortified with palisades and thick hedges that only by crossing a log which lay over a ravine, could it be approached. The snow was deep, but the footsteps of the whites were providentially directed to this entrance, and though commanded by a block-house forti-



INDIAN WEAPONS.

fied and manned, the officers led the men directly across the narrow and dangerous bridge. The first were killed, but others pressed on, and the fort was entered.

Conanchet and his warriors fought with desperation, and forced the English to retire; but they continued the fight, defeated the savages, and

again entering the fort they set fire to the Indian dwellings. One thousand warriors were killed; three hundred, and as many women and children, were made prisoners. About six hundred of their wigwams were burnt, and many helpless sufferers perished in the flames.

The wretched remains of the tribe took shelter in the recesses of a cedar swamp, covering themselves with boughs, or burrowing in the ground, and feeding on acorns or nuts, dug out with their hands from the snow. Many who escaped a sudden, thus died a lingering death. Conanchet was made prisoner in April, and was offered his freedom if he would enter into a treaty of peace. The chieftain indignantly refused, and was put to death.

An Enemy to the Last.

In the midst of these reverses Philip remained unshaken in his enmity. His chief men, as also his wife and family, were killed or made prisoners; and while he wept at these domestic bereavements, with a bitterness that evinced the finest feelings of human nature, so averse was he to submission that he even shot one of his men who proposed it. After being driven from swamp to swamp, he was at last shot near Montaup by the brother of the Indian whom he had thus killed. Of the scattered parties which remained, many were captured. Some sought refuge at the north. These afterwards served as guides to those parties of hostile French and Indians who came down and desolated the provinces.

In this dreadful contest New England lost six hundred inhabitants. Fourteen towns had been destroyed, and a heavy debt incurred. Yet the colonies had received no assistance from England, and they asked none. The humane Irish sent the sufferers some relief. If Philip's war was to the whites disastrous, to the savage tribes it was ruinous. The Pokanokets and the Narragansetts henceforth disappear from history.

CHAPTER XI.

THE GROWING NATION.

ROGER WILLIAMS was a Puritan minister, who had been driven from England by those persecutions for opinion, which, like the confusion of languages at Babel, drove men asunder, and peopled the earth. When Williams arrived in Massachusetts, he proclaimed, that the only business of the human legislator is with the actions of man as they affect his fellow-man; but as for the thoughts and feelings of his mind, and the acts or omissions of his life, as respects religious worship, the only lawgiver is God; and the only human tribunal, a man's own conscience.

Hence he condemned as unjust the church-membership restriction of the right of suffrage, all laws to compel attendance on devotional exercises, and all taxation to support public worship. Great was the astonishment caused, and the disturbance made, by what was called this "ill egg of toleration." Williams, the eloquent young divine, frank and affectionate, had, however, won the hearts of the people of Salem, and they invited him to settle with them as their pastor. The general court forbade it. Williams withdrew to Plymouth, where he remained as pastor for two years, and then returned to Salem, where he was again gladly received by the people.

The court punished the town for this offense by withholding a tract of land to which they had a claim. Williams wrote to the churches, endeavoring to show the injustice of this proceeding; whereupon the court ordered, that until ample apology was made for the letter, Salem should be disfranchised. Then all, even his wife, yielded to the clamor against him; but he declared to the court before whom he was arraigned, that he was ready to be bound, or if need were, to attest with his life, his devotion to his principles.

The court pronounced against him the sentence of exile. Winter was approaching and he obtained permission to remain till spring. The affections of his people revived, and throngs collected to hear the beloved voice, soon to cease from among them. The authorities became alarmed, and sent a vessel to convey him to England; but he had disappeared.

Now a wanderer in the wilderness, he had not, upon many a stormy night, either "food, or fire, or company," or better lodging than the hollow of a tree. At last, a few followers having joined him, he fixed at Seckonk, since Rehoboth, within the limits of the colony of Plymouth. Winslow was now Governor there; and he felt himself obliged to communicate to Williams that his remaining would breed disturbance between the colonies; and he added his advice to that privately conveyed to Williams by a letter from Winthrop "to steer his course to Narragansett Bay."

Generosity of an Indian Chief.

Williams now threw himself upon the mercy of Canonicus. At first the sachem was ungracious. The English, he said, had sought to kill him, and had sent the plague among his people. But Williams won upon him by degrees, and he extended his hospitality to him and his suffering company. He would not, he said, *sell* his land, but he freely gave to Williams, whose neighborhood he now coveted, and who was favored by his nephew, Miantonomoh, all the neck of land between the Pawtucket and Moshasuck Rivers, "that his people might sit down in peace and enjoy it forever." Thither they went, and with pious thanksgiving named the goodly place Providence.

The Dutch and English both claimed to be the original discoverers of Connecticut River, but the former had probably the juster claim. The natives along its valley were kept in fear by the more warlike Pequods on the east, and the terrible Mohawks in the west; and hence they desired the presence of the English as defenders. As early as 1631, Wahquima-cut, one of their sachems, being pressed by the Pequods, went to Boston and afterwards to Plymouth, earnestly requesting that an English colony might be sent to his country, which he truly described as a delightful region. Governor Winthrop declined his proposal; but Edward Winslow, then Governor of Plymouth, favored the project, and visited and examined the valley.

The Plymouth people had been, some time previously, advised by the Dutch to settle on Connecticut River; and they now determined to pursue the enterprise. They fixed on the site of Windsor, as the place to erect a trading-house. But delays occurred, and the Dutch having repented of their former moderation, and now anxious to secure the territory for themselves, erected a small trading fort, called the house of Good Hope, on a

point of land in Sukeag, since Hartford, at the junction of the Little river with the Connecticut.

How firmly the little state had become established in a short time is shown from the shock which it now met and repelled. The Pequods were endeavoring to unite the Indian tribes in a plot to exterminate the English, especially those of this colony, named from its river, Connecticut.

A general court was called on the last of May, at Hartford. Thirty persons had already been killed, and the evidence was conclusive that the savages designed a general massacre. The court, therefore, righteously declared war. The quota of troops from the three towns now settled, shows the rapid progress of the settlement. Hartford was to furnish ninety men, Windsor forty-two, and Wethersfield eighteen, making one hundred and fifty. John Mason was chosen captain. The troops embarked at Hartford, sailed down the river, and along the coast to Narragansett Bay. Miantonomoh furnished them two hundred warriors, Uncas sixty. There were actually embodied of the English only seventy-seven, of whom twenty, commanded by Captain Underhill, were from Massachusetts.

Terrible Slaughter of the Natives.

Guided by a Pequod deserter, they reached Mystic, one of the two forts of Sassacus, at dawn of day. Their Indian allies showed signs of fear, and Mason, arranging them at a distance around the fort, advanced with his own little army. If they fell there was no second force to defend their state, their wives and helpless children. As they approach a dog barks, and an Indian sentinel cries out, "Owannox, Owannox!" the English, the English! They leap within the fort. The Indians fight desperately, and victory is doubtful. Mason then seizes and throws a flaming brand, shouting, "we must burn them." The light materials of their wigwams were instantly in a blaze. Hemmed in, as the Indians now were, escape was impossible; and six hundred, all who were within the fort, of every sex and age, in one hour perished.

Three hundred Pequods, issuing from the other and royal fortress of Sassacus, pursued Mason with infuriated rage, as he retreated to the Pequod River, where he embarked on his vessels, which he met there. Two of the English were killed, and twenty wounded.

The subjects of Sassacus now reproached him as the author of their misfortunes; and, to escape destruction, he with his chief captains fled to

the Mohawks; but he was afterwards slain by a revengeful subject. Three hundred of his warriors, having burned his remaining fort, fled along the sea-coast. Massachusetts had raised a body of men to aid in the war, which on account of the theological disturbance, arrived too late for the battle. These, under Captain Patrick, now joined with forty men under Mason, pursued the fugitive savages, traced them to a swamp in Fairfield, and there fought and defeated them.

The prowess of the English had thus put the natives in fear, and a long peace ensued. All the churches in New England commemorated this deliverance by keeping a day of common and devout thanksgiving.

Charles II. died in 1685, and was succeeded by the Duke of York, under the title of James II. He declared that there should be no free governments in his dominions; and accordingly ordered writs to be issued against the charters of the colonies of Connecticut and Rhode Island. These colonies presented letters and addresses, which, containing expressions of humble duty, the king construed them into an actual surrender of their charters; and, affecting to believe that all impediments to the royal will were removed, he proceeded to establish a temporary government over New England. Sir Joseph Dudley was appointed president in 1686; but in December of the same year he was succeeded by Sir Edmund Andros, as governor-general, in whom, with a council, was vested all the powers of government.



THE CHARTER OAK.

Sir Edmund began his career with the most flattering professions of his regard to the public safety and happiness. It was, however, well observed, that "Nero concealed his tyrannical disposition more years than Sir Edmund did months." He assumed control over the press, and appointed the detested Randolph, licenser.

Soon after the arrival of Andros, he sent to Connecticut, demanding the surrender of her charter. This being refused, in 1687, he came with a guard to Hartford, during the session of the general assembly, and in person required its delivery. After debating until evening, the charter was produced, and laid on the table where the assembly were sitting. The lights were extinguished, and one of the members privately conveyed it away, and hid

it in a cavity of a large oak tree. The candles were officiously relighted, but the charter was gone; and no discovery could be made of it, or at that time, of the person who carried it away. The government of the colony was, however, surrendered to Andros.

It is time now to give some account of the settlement of New York, the greatest State in the Union in population and wealth. It contains the finest river for navigation, possesses the commercial capital, and holds a position which alone connects New England with the South and West.

In 1609 occurred the discovery of the Hudson river, which has proved the finest for navigation of any in America, and under circumstances which, giving to two nations claims to its waters and their adjoining country, became the occasion of subsequent wars. Hendrick Hudson, the discoverer, was an Englishman by birth, but in the service of the Dutch East India Company. The next year the Dutch sent ships to this river to open a trade with the natives, but the Court of England disowned their claim to the country. The Dutch, however, followed up their good fortune, and soon erected forts Orange and Manhattan, near the sites of Albany and New York.



HENDRICK HUDSON.

Holland was one of those kingdoms which the early Fathers of New England were wont to say, "the Lord had sifted for good seed to sow the wilderness." It was just after this nation had succeeded in its struggle against the bloody tyranny of Philip II. of Spain, and established an independent federal government, that Henry Hudson, in the service of the Dutch East India Company, as already stated, sailed from the Texel for the purpose of discovering a northwest passage to India; but being unsuccessful, he coasted along the shores of Newfoundland, proceeded south as far as Delaware and Chesapeake Bays, then returning northward he became the discoverer of the noble river which bears his name.

In 1614 a company of merchants having received permission from the State's General, fitted out a squadron of several ships, and sent them to trade to the country which Hudson had discovered. A rude fort was constructed on Manhattan Island. One of the captains of the squadron, Adrian Blok, sailed through the East river and determined the insulated position of Long Island. He probably entered Connecticut river, and it is fully believed that he examined the coast as far as Cape Cod.

Fort Built by the Traders.

The next year the adventurers sailed up the Hudson, and on a little island, just below the present position of Albany, they built a small fort, naming it Fort Orange. But no families had emigrated. The Dutch were then merely traders. Afterwards they changed their location, and fixed where Albany now stands.

Holland was torn by factions. Grotius, the most enlightened of her sons, was sentenced to imprisonment for life, and the disciples of his school were now ready to emigrate. To promote trade, the "West India Company" was formed, with full powers. The willing settlers were sent over. Cottages clustered around Manhattan fort, now called New Amsterdam, and Peter Minuets was made its first governor.

Many settlements were now made, and a great part of the best land was soon appropriated. The Indian chiefs conveyed to the excellent Van Renselaer the tract around Fort Orange to the mouth of the Mohawk, and the College of Nineteen gave a patent. Six years afterwards the grant was extended twelve miles further to the south. De Vries conducted from Holland a colony which settled Lewistown, near the Delaware; a small fort called Nassau having been previously erected by the Dutch.

In consequence of disagreements among the company in Holland, Peter Minuets returned, having been superseded by Walter Van Twiller. Minuets became the leader of a colony of Swedes. The Dutch were now curtailed of the territory which they claimed on Connecticut river by the settlement of Hooker and others, and also by the subjects of Gustavus Adolphus, led by Minuets, of that on the banks of the Delaware.

Difficulties also arose with the savages. Governor Keift, who had succeeded Van Twiller, had an inconsiderable quarrel with the Manhattan Indians. Notwithstanding, when the Mohawks came down upon them, they collected in groups, and begged him to shelter and assist

them. Instead of this, the barbarous Keift sent his troops, and at night murdered them all—men, women and helpless babes—to the number of a hundred. Indian vengeance awoke, as well it might, and its tokens spread quickly from tribe to tribe.

No English family within reach of the Algonquins was safe. The Dutch villages were in flames around, and the people fleeing to Holland. Near New York the family of Anne Hutchinson, and many others, were massacred; and in New England all was jeopardy and alarm. The Dutch troops defended themselves, having placed at their head Captain Underhill, who had been expelled from Massachusetts. At this time is supposed to have occurred a bloody battle at Strickland's Plain, in Greenwich, Connecticut, of which, however, the details seem strangely lost.

Tomahawk Buried under the Tree of Peace.

The Mohawks, who were friendly to the Dutch, at length interfered, and the congregated Indian sachems met in council with the whites, on the ground of the battery in New York. "The tree of peace was planted and the tomahawk buried beneath its shade." Keift, execrated by all the colonies, was remanded to Holland; and, on his return, perished by shipwreck on the coast of Wales. Peter Stuyvesant had succeeded to his office before his departure. He went to Hartford, and there entered into negotiations. The Dutch claims to Connecticut were relinquished, and Long Island was divided between the two parties.

The Dutch had built fort Casimir on the site of Newcastle, in Delaware. The Swedes conceiving this to be an encroachment on their territory, Rising, their Governor, by an unworthy stratagem, made himself its master. In 1655, Stuyvesant, acting by orders received from Holland, embarked at New Amsterdam with six hundred men, and sailing up the Delaware he subjugated the Swedes. New Sweden was heard of no more; but the settlers were secured in their rights of private property, and their descendants are among the best of our citizens.

Many emigrants now came to New Netherlands, from among the oppressed, the discontented, and the enterprising of other colonies and of European nations. At length the inhabitants sought a share of political power. They assembled, and by their delegates demanded that no laws should be passed, except with the consent of the people. Stuyvesant very unceremoniously let them know that he was not to be directed "by a few



THE LANDING OF ROGER WILLIAMS



GEN. PEPPERELL AT THE SIEGE OF LOUISBURG.

ignorant subjects;" and he forthwith dissolved the assembly. The "Nineteen" highly approved his course; and charged him not "to allow the people to indulge such visionary dreams, as that taxes should not be imposed without their consent."

But popular liberty, though checked here, prevailed in the adjoining provinces; and they consequently grew more rapidly and crowded upon the Dutch. The Indians made war upon some of their villages, especially that of Esopus, now Kingston; and New Netherlands could not obtain aid from Holland. The States General had given the whole concern into the hands of the Nineteen, they to pay all expenses; and this council refused to make needful advances.

In the meantime, Charles II. had granted to his brother James, then

Duke of York and Albany, the territory from the banks of the Connecticut to those of the Delaware. Sir Robert Nichols, a confidential officer of his household, was dispatched with a fleet to take possession. Nichols brought over commissioners to New England, and landed them at Boston. Taking in from Long Island the younger Winthrop, now Governor of Connecticut, he sailed to New Amsterdam, and suddenly demanded of the astonished Stuyvesant to give up the place. Winthrop advised him to do



PETER STUYVESANT, GOVERNOR OF NEW YORK.

so, but the faithful Dutchman replied that a tame surrender "would be reproved in the fatherland;" and he would have defended his post if he could. But the body of the people preferred the English rule to that of the Dutch, the privileges of Englishmen having been promised them. Nichols therefore entered, took possession in the name of his master, and called the place New York.


A part of the English fleet, under Sir George Carteret, sailed up the Hudson to Fort Orange, which surrendered and was named Albany. The Dutch fort on the Delaware was also taken by the English. The rights of property were respected, and a treaty was made with the Five Nations. The whole line of coast from Acadia to Florida, was now in possession of the English. But there was destined to be a long struggle between the European nations for the mastery of the new world. There was as much rivalry as could have been expected at a time when the vast resources of the new country were quite unknown and the difficulties of ocean navigation were so great.

Most of the towns that now teem with population, were, in the first place, trading stations and forts. These became centres of industry and traffic, and as the country grew older such centres of population became rallying points for the settlers. Our history shows that these early settlements nearly all suffered during the wars with the Indians which broke out from time to time, and were carried on with savage barbarity.

The strong hold the English obtained in America continued, and their settlements increased in number on almost every part of the coast. Even at this early period, there was a stir in the old world, and westward the course of empire was taking its way. The growth of the colonies fluctuated according to circumstances, but there was a steady movement of industrious, thrifty, resolute people toward the American wilderness.

CHAPTER XII.

PENNSYLVANIA AND ITS FOUNDER.

HE great and good man, to whom Pennsylvania owes its origin, was the son of Vice Admiral Sir William Penn, and was born in London in 1644. He was regarded as a child of great promise. At eleven years of age, being, as he relates, at Oxford School, he was suddenly surprised "with an inward comfort, and an external glory in the belief of God, and his communion with his soul." Nothing, through a long life, ever shook his faith in the reality of this divinely communicated "inner light."

At fifteen he entered Oxford College; but though an excellent scholar—his religious sensibilities having been farther excited by the preaching of Thomas Loe, a Quaker, he was led to some irregularities as a student, involving a contempt of the authority, which caused his expulsion. His father, disappointed in the ambitious hopes which the uncommon talents of his son had raised, used every means, not excepting fatherly chastisement, to cure him of what he considered his whimsical obstinacy. All his efforts failing, he turned him from his door. But a generous nature, with the persuasions of his wife, soon made him relent, and restore his son to his favor.

William was next sent to travel in France and Italy, where he spent two years. He returned with an elegant polish of manners, which delighted his father. But the admiral soon found that, wherever his religion was concerned, his son had the same peculiar views, and the same unbending spirit as before.

His father next sent him to Ireland, in hopes that the splendid court of his friend, the Earl of Ormond, now Lord Lieutenant of that kingdom, would make him a man of the world. Having the agency of his father's large estates in Ireland, William applied himself to business with so much ability that his father was delighted with his success. But he again heard the preacher, Thomas Loe, and became a decided member of the Quaker Society, and as such he was persecuted and imprisoned. His father hear-

ing of this, recalled him to England. Mortified at his oddities, but proud of his talents, the impassioned father entreats and beseeches,—even with tears. The affectionate son struggles between his love for his earthly and that for his Heavenly Parent, and decides that he must, at whatever cost, be in subjection to the Father of his spirit.

The admiral is willing to endure much, and finally proposes to compromise, and allow his son's peculiarities, provided he will consent partially to waive the Quaker custom of wearing the hat in every human presence,

and uncover his head before the King, the Duke of York and himself. Penn reflected that his spiritual strength and comfort depended upon obedience to his inward monitor. Christianity taught that the outward act should never belie the heart; and "hat-worship" he believed could not otherwise be practiced. He therefore refused his father's proffer, and was again excluded from the shelter of his roof.

Penn now became a preacher and an author, and was ere long cast into prison for his violation of the severe laws respecting public worship; and though released by his father's mediation, he was soon re-committed. His fearless eloquence on one occasion, gained the jury to his cause. He was accused before the Mayor and



WILLIAM PENN.

Recorder of London of holding a private meeting with his brethren for religious worship; and though the court directed, threatened, and kept the jury two days without "meat, drink, fire or tobacco," these twelve bold jurors would not find a bill against the prisoner. For this the court fined them, and cast them into prison for their fine. Such was the spirit of the times.

Admiral Penn, when his health failed, recalled his beloved son. He gave a charge on his death-bed to his friend, the Duke of York, who accepted the office, to watch the fate of William, and, as far as possible, shield him from the evils to which his peculiar tenets must expose him.

Soon after his father's death Penn is again in prison. But notwithstanding this, we soon find him allying himself in marriage to a family of high respectability, and to a woman of extraordinary intelligence, beauty, and goodness. That he had now the public confidence also appears from the trust reposed in him by the assignees of Edward Billinge, while the high order of his talents was manifested by his legislation for the two Jerseys.

His thoughts were by this turned to America; and the sufferings of his dear persecuted brethren led him to plans of colonizing there, which he proceeded to put into operation. His father had left claims to the amount of sixteen thousand pounds against the crown; and Penn, finding that there was a tract yet ungranted, north of Lord Baltimore's patent, solicited and obtained of Charles II. a charter of the country, "which was bounded on the east by the river Delaware, extending westward through five degrees of longitude, and stretching from twelve miles northward of Newcastle to the forty-third degree of latitude, and was limited on the south by a circle of twelve miles drawn around Newcastle, to the beginning of the fortieth degree of north latitude." It was called by the king Pennsylvania.

A Council to Establish Peace.

Soon after the date of this grant, two other conveyances were made to Penn by the Duke of York; one of which embraced the present state of Delaware, and was called the "Territories." The other was a release from the Duke of any claims to Pennsylvania.

Directions had been given to Colonel Markham, who preceded Penn, that the natives should be treated kindly and fairly; and accordingly no land had been entered upon but by their consent. They had also been notified that Penn, to whom they gave the name of Onas, was to kindle a council fire at a certain time, in order to meet and establish with them a treaty of perpetual peace. On the morning of the appointed day, under a huge elm at Shackamaxon, now a suburb of Philadelphia, William Penn, majestic in person, beautiful in countenance, graceful, though plain in manner and attire, his only ornament being a sash of pale blue, stood and held in his hand the roll of peace.

Sending around his loving glance, he sees "far as his eyes can carry" among the trees of the forest, its painted and plumed children gathering towards him. The chiefs came forward and half encircle him. The principal sachem puts upon his own head a horned chaplet, the symbol of his power.

At once every warrior lays down his bow and t-mahawk, and seats himself upon the ground. The grand chief then announces to Onas that the nations are ready to hear his words, believing him to be an angel sent to them by the Great Spirit.

Penn gave them instructions, and solemnly appealed to the Almighty, who knew his inmost thoughts, that it was the ardent desire of his heart to do them good. "He would not call them brothers or children, but they should be to him and his, as half of the same body." The chiefs then gave their pledge for themselves, and for their tribes, "to live in love with him and his children, as long as the sun and moon should endure." The treaty was then executed, the chiefs marking down the emblems of their several tribes. The purchases of Markham were confirmed and others made.

The City of Philadelphia Founded.

After this Penn went to a villa which his nephew had built for his residence, opposite the site of Burlington, and called Pennsbury. Here he gave directions for laying out towns and counties, and in conjunction with the surveyor, Holme, drew the plan of his capital, and in the spirit of "brotherly love," named it Philadelphia.

Vessels came fast with new settlers, until twenty-two bearing two thousand persons, had arrived. Some came so late in the fall, that they could not be provided with house-room in the rude dwellings of the new city; and "the caves" were dug in the banks of the river to receive them. Providence fed them by flocks of pigeons and the fish of the rivers; and the Indians, regarding them as the children of Onas, hunted to bring them game.

Penn had left beyond the ocean his beloved family. Letters from England spoke of the sufferings of his Quaker brethren, and he believed that he might exercise an influence there to check persecution. He embarked on the fourth of August, and wrote on board the ship an affectionate adieu to his province, which he sent on shore before he sailed. He said, "And thou, Philadelphia, virgin of the province! my soul prays for thee, that, faithful to the God of thy mercies, in the life of righteousness, thou mayest be preserved unto the end!"

After William Penn's arrival in England he became one of the most influential persons in the kingdom; for when the Duke of York was made king, under the title of James II., he manifested for him much confidence and affection. The influence thus possessed at court was never used for

selfish purposes, but mainly to obtain benefits for distressed Quakers, and laws in favor of general toleration.


When James became an exile in France, Penn was suspected, by his successor, of holding with him a treasonable correspondence, and upon vague charges to this effect he was a number of times imprisoned. In 1692 the government of Pennsylvania was taken from him, and Fletcher, governor of New York, appointed by the crown to rule his province. After strict scrutiny, the conduct of Penn was found to be irreproachable, and in 1694 he was restored to the favor of the king, and reinstated in his government; but not immediately returning to Pennsylvania, he appointed the worthy Thomas Lloyd his deputy-governor.

The Duke's Claims Adjudged to be Oppressive.

Sir Edmund Andros, when governor of New York, under pretence of the claims of the Duke of York, usurped the government both in East and West Jersey, and laid a tax upon all goods imported, and upon the property of all who came to settle in the country. Penn received complaints of these abuses, and with such strength of argument opposed the claims of the duke that the commissioners to whom the case was referred adjudged the duties to be illegal and oppressive; in consequence of which, in 1680, they were removed, and the proprietors reinstated in the government. Edward Byllinge was appointed their governor, and the next year, 1681, he summoned the first General Assembly held in West Jersey. In 1682 the people, by the advice of Penn, amended their government. Contrary to the wishes of the proprietor, the next year they proceeded to elect their own governor.

CHAPTER XIII.

WITCHCRAFT IN NEW ENGLAND.

HE story of witchcraft in the Massachusetts colony is one of the most singular ever recorded. In 1688 a case occurred which excited general interest, and was the beginning of one of the saddest periods in the history of New England. The daughter of John Goodwin, a child of thirteen years, accused the daughter of an Irish laundress of stealing some linen. The mother of the laundress, a friendless emigrant, succeeded in disproving the charge, and abused the girl soundly for making a false accusation.

Soon after this the accuser was seized with a fit, and pretended to be bewitched in order to be revenged upon the poor Irish woman. Her younger sister and two of her brothers followed her example. They pretended to be dumb, then deaf, then blind, and then all three at once. Nevertheless their appetite was good, and they slept soundly at night. The youngest of these little impostors was less than five years old. It was at once given out that the Goodwin children were bewitched, and no one suspected or hinted at the fraud. They would bark like dogs and mew like cats, and a physician who was called in to treat them solemnly declared that they were possessed by devils.

A conference of the four ministers of Boston, and one from Charlestown, was held at Goodwin's house, where they observed a day of fasting and prayer. As a result of their efforts the youngest child, a boy of less than five years, was delivered of his evil spirit. The ministers now had no doubt that the children had been bewitched, and as the little ones accused the Irish woman of their misfortune, she was arrested, tried for witchcraft, convicted and hanged, notwithstanding that many persons thought the poor creature a lunatic.

Among the ministers who had investigated this case and had procured the execution of the woman was Cotton Mather, the son of Increase Mather, then president of Harvard College. He was a young man who had but recently entered the ministry, and was regarded as one of the most learned

and gifted preachers in the colony. He was withal a man of overweening vanity and full of ambition. He could not bear contradiction, and was devoted to the maintenance of the political power of the clergy. He was superstitious by nature, and was firmly convinced of the reality of witchcraft.

He had become deeply interested in the case of the Goodwin children, and in order to study it more deeply took the eldest girl to his house, where he could observe and experiment upon her devil at his leisure. She was a cunning creature, and soon found that it was to her interest to humor the young pastor in his views, and she played upon his weakness with a shrewdness and skill which were remarkable in one so young, and exhibit the credulity of the investigator in a most pitiable light.

Mather carried on his experiments with a diligence which would have seemed ludicrous had its object been less baneful to the community. He read the Bible, and prayed aloud in the presence of the girl, who would pretend to be thrown into a fit by the pious exercise. At the same time she read the Book of Common Prayer, or Quaker or Popish treatises, without any interruption from her familiar spirits. The minister then tested the proficiency of the devil in languages, by reading aloud passages of the Bible in Hebrew, Greek and Latin, which the girl professed to understand.

Concluded that all Devils are not Alike.

When he tried her with an Indian dialect, however, she could not comprehend him. By other experiments, designed to ascertain if the spirits could read the thoughts of others, Mather came to the sage conclusion that "all devils are not alike sagacious." The girl flattered his vanity, and lulled his suspicion of fraud by telling him that his own person was especially protected against the evil spirits by the power of God, and that the devils did not dare to enter his study.

In 1692 a new case of witchcraft occurred in Salem village, now the town of Danvers. The minister of this place was Samuel Parris, between whom and a number of his people there had for some time existed dissensions of such a bitter nature that the attention of the general court had been directed to them. In February, 1692, the daughter and niece of Parris, the former a child of nine years, and the latter of less than twelve, gave signs of being bewitched. Parris at once recognized the opportunity which was thus offered him for vengeance upon his enemies, and deliberately availed himself of it.

He demanded of the children the names of the persons who had bewitched them, and then proceeded to accuse those whom he succeeded in inducing the girls to denounce. The first victim was Rebecca Nurse. She was known in the community as a woman of exemplary Christian character;



THE REV. COTTON MATHER.

Mather, who deemed his credit at stake, lent his active aid to the prosecution of these unfortunate people, and had the vanity to declare that he regarded the efforts of "the evil angels upon the country as a particular defiance unto himself." Parris scattered his accusations right and left, becoming both informer and witness against those whom he meant to destroy for their opposition to him.

but she was one of the most resolute opponents of Parris. Upon his accusation she was arrested and imprisoned. The next Sunday Parris preached a sermon from the text, "Have I not chosen you twelve, and one of you is a devil." As his remarks were directed against Mistress Nurse, Sarah Cloyce, her sister, at once left the church.

This in itself was a serious offence in those days, and Parris took advantage of it to accuse the offender of witchcraft, and she was seen to join her sister in prison.

In a few weeks nearly one hundred persons were in prison upon the charge of witchcraft. Abigail Williams, Parris's niece, aided her uncle with her tales, which the least examination would have shown to be absurd. George Burroughs, one of the ministers of Salem, had long been regarded by Parris as a rival, and he now openly expressed his disbelief in witchcraft, and his disapproval of the measures against those charged with that offence. This boldness sealed his doom. He was accused by Parris and committed to prison "with the rest of the witches." "The gallows was to be set up, not for those who professed themselves witches, but for those who rebuked the delusion."

Governor Bradstreet, who had been chosen by the people, was unwilling to proceed to extreme measures against the accused, as he had no faith in the evidence against them. The arrival of the royal governor and the new charter in Boston in May, 1692, placed Cotton Mather and his fellow-prosecutors in a position to carry out their bloody designs. The General Court alone had authority to appoint special courts, but Governor Phipps did not hesitate to appoint one himself for the trial of the accused persons at Salem, and this illegal tribunal, with Stoughton as its chief judge, met at Salem on the 2d of June. In this court, Parris acted as prosecutor, keeping back some witnesses, and pushing others forward, as suited his plans.

A Woman Suspected and Hanged.

The first victim of the court was Bridget Bishop, "a poor, friendless old woman." Parris, who had examined her at the time of her commitment, was the principal witness against her. Deliverance Hobbs being also accused, a natural infirmity of her body was taken as a proof of her guilt, and she was hanged, protesting her innocence. Rebecca Nurse was at first acquitted of the charges against her, but the court refused to receive the verdict of the jury, and Parris was determined that the woman against whom he had preached and prayed should not escape him, and the jury were induced to convict her, and she was hanged. John Willard, who had been compelled, by his duty as a constable, to arrest the accused, now refused to serve in this capacity any longer, as he had become convinced of the hypocrisy of the instigators of the persecution. He was immediately denounced, tried and hanged.

When George Burroughs, the minister, was placed on trial, the witnesses produced against him pretended to be dumb. "Who hinders these witnesses from giving their testimonies?" asked Stoughton, the chief judge. "I

suppose the devil," replied Burroughs, contemptuously. "How comes the devil," cried Stoughton, exultingly, "so loath to have any testimony borne against you?" The words of the prisoner were regarded as a confession, and his remarkable bodily strength was made an evidence of his guilt. He was convicted and sentenced to be hanged. He was executed on the 19th of August, with four others. As he ascended the scaffold, Burroughs made an appeal to the people assembled to witness the execution, and effectually vindicated himself from the absurd charges against him, and repeated the Lord's prayer, which was regarded as a test of innocence. The spectators seemed about to interfere in favor of the victim.

A Reign of Terror in the Colony.

Cotton Mather, who was present on horseback, now exerted himself to complete the judicial murder. He harangued the people, insisted on the guilt of Burroughs, reminding them that the devil could sometimes assume the form of an angel of light, and even descended to the falsehood of declaring that Burroughs was no true minister, as his ordination was not valid. His appeal was successful, and the execution was completed.

Giles Cory, an old man over eighty years of age, seeing that no denial of guilt availed anything, refused to plead, and was *pressed to death*, in accordance with an old English law, long obsolete, which was revived to meet his case. Samuel Wardwell confessed his guilt, and escaped the gallows. Overcome with shame for his cowardice, he retracted his confession, and was hanged for denying witchcraft. A reign of terror prevailed in Salem; the prisons were full, and no one could feel sure how long he would escape accusation and arrest.

Many persons confessed their guilt to save their lives. Children accused their parents, parents their children, and husbands and wives each other of the most impossible offences, in the hope of escaping the persecution themselves. Hale, the minister of Beverley, was a zealous advocate of the persecution, until the bitter cup was presented to his own lips by the accusation of his wife. Many persons were obliged to fly the colony, and the magistrates, conscious that they were exceeding their powers, did not demand their surrender.

We have mentioned only some of the principal cases to show the character of the persecution, as our limits forbid the relation of all. The total number hanged was twenty; fifty-five were tortured or terrified into

confessions of guilt. The accusations were at first lodged against persons of humble station, but at length reached the higher classes.

Stoughton's court, having hanged twenty of its victims, adjourned about the last of September, 1692, until November, and on the eighteenth of October the general court met. The indignation of the people had been gathering force, and men were determined to put a stop to the judicial murders and tortures which had disgraced them so long. Remonstrances were at once presented to the assembly against "the doings of the witch tribunals," the people of Andover leading the way in this effort. The assembly abolished the special court, and established a tribunal by public law.

The Dreadful Mistake is Acknowledged.

The danger was now over. It was no longer possible to procure a conviction for witchcraft. The indignant people of Salem village at once drove the wretched Parris and his family from the place. Noyes, the minister of Salem, who had been active in the persecutions, was compelled to ask the forgiveness of the people, after a public confession of his error. The devotion of the rest of his life to works of charity won him the pardon he sought. Sewall, one of the judges, struck with horror at the part he had played in the persecution, made an open and frank confession of his error, and implored the forgiveness of his fellow-citizens. His sincerity was so evident that he soon regained the favor he had lost. Stoughton passed the remainder of his life in proud and haughty disregard of the opinion of his fellow-men, scorning to make any acknowledgment of error, and evincing no remorse for his cruelties.

As for the prime mover of the delusion, the Rev. Cotton Mather, nothing could induce him to admit that he could by any possibility have been in error; not even the recollection of the sorrow he had brought upon some of the best people in the colony could shake his impenetrable self-conceit or humble him. When it was plain to him that he was the object of the indignation of all good men in New England, he had the hardihood to endeavor to persuade them that after all he had not been specially active in the sad affair.

CHAPTER XIV.

COLONIES ON THE SOUTHERN COAST.

AFTER Charles II. was restored to the throne of England his rapacious courtiers, taking advantage of his improvident good nature, obtained for their services real or pretended, from him who had little else to give, large tracts of American territory. Nor was that monarch, as we have already seen, at all scrupulous when a favorite was to be gratified, if what he gave had before been granted, or if it belonged to other nations.

But settlers were wanted, and to procure these, various inducements were held out. Two settlements had already been formed. One of these, near the Sound, called, from the title given to the restorer of Charles II., Albemarle, was begun at an early day by enterprising planters from Virginia; and enjoying entire liberty, it had been augmented from that and other colonies, whenever religious or political oppression had scattered their people.

The other colony was to the south of this, on Cape Fear or Clarendon River; and had been originally made by a little band of adventurers from New England. They, as well as the former colony, had purchased their land of the natives—they had occupied it, and they claimed, as a law of nature, the right of self-government. In the meantime, a number of planters from Barbadoes, desiring to re-establish themselves in independence, purchased lands of the sachems, and settled on Cape Fear River, near the territory of the New Englanders. The two parties united. In 1667 they were in danger of famine, and Massachusetts sent them relief.

William Sayle, the first proprietary governor of Carolina, brought over a colony, with which he founded old Charleston. Dying in 1671 his colony was annexed to that of Governor Yeamens. In 1680 the city was removed to the point of land between the two rivers, which received, in compliment to Lord Shaftsbury, the names of Ashley and Cooper. The foundation of the present capital of the south was laid, and the name of the king perpetuated in that of Charleston.

During the year 1690 King William sent out a large body of French Protestants, who had been compelled to leave their country by the arbitrary measures of Louis XIV. To a part of these, lands were allotted in Virginia on James River, and others settled in Carolina on the banks of the Santee, and in Charleston. They introduced the culture of the vine, and were among the most useful settlers of the province.

About 1723 a new colony was projected in England. The country between the Savannah and Altamaha rivers, although within the limits of the Carolina grant, was still unoccupied by European settlers. The patriotic deemed it important that this region should be planted by a British colony, otherwise, it was feared, it would be seized by the Spaniards from Florida, or the French from the Mississippi. At the same time, a spirit of philanthropy was abroad in England, to notice the distresses of the poor, especially those shut up in prisons, and to provide for their relief.



GENERAL OGLETHORPE.

Actuated by these generous considerations, a number of gentlemen in England, of whom James Oglethorpe was the most zealous, formed a project to settle this tract by such of the suffering poor as might be willing to seek, in the new world, the means of subsistence. To this company, the territory between the Savannah and Altamaha, now, in honor of the king, denominated Georgia, was granted; and with its settlement was completed that of the thirteen veteran colonies, which fought the War of the Revolution, and whose emblematic stars and stripes still decorate the banner of American Independence.

Oglethorpe, having prepared for the settlement of Georgia, by the assistance of a corporation, consisting of twenty-one persons, who were called "Trustees for settling and establishing the colony of Georgia," embarked in November, 1732, with one hundred and sixteen emigrants for America.

They arrived at Charleston in January, 1733. Governor Johnson, sensible of the importance of having a barrier between his people and the Southern Indians, gave them all the aid in his power, and accompanied them to the place of their destination. This was Yamacraw Bluff, since called Savannah, which they reached on the 1st of February, and Oglethorpe immediately commenced a fort.

His next care was to propitiate the Indians. The tribe settled at Yamacraw was considerable. The Creeks, at this period, could muster 2,500 warriors; the Cherokees, 6,000; the Choctaws, 5,000; and the Chickasaws, 700; amounting in the whole to 14,200. Aware, that without the friendship of these nations, his colony could not even exist, much less prosper, Oglethorpe summoned a general meeting of the chiefs, fifty of whom met him in council at Savannah. By means of an interpreter, he made them the most friendly professions, which they reciprocated; and these amicable dispositions passed into a solemn treaty.

Idle and Vicious Emigrants.

Soon after these occurrences, Georgia was increased by five or six hundred emigrants; but most of them were idle, and many of them vicious. In 1736, Oglethorpe erected three forts, one on the Savannah, at Augusta; another called Frederica, in the vicinity of the Scotch settlement, on the island of St. Simons; and a third, named Fort William, on Cumberland island. The Spaniards remonstrated, and insisted on the evacuation of the country as far as the thirty-third degree of north latitude.

Oglethorpe about this time returned to England. That nation being determined to maintain their claim to the disputed territory, appointed him commander-in-chief of the British forces in Carolina and Georgia, and sent him back with a regiment of six hundred men. On his arrival in America, he established his headquarters at Frederica.

About this time, a number of slaves near Charleston, influenced by the Spaniards, rose in a body, armed themselves by forcing open a magazine at Stono, and, thence proceeding south twelve miles, they killed all the whites they met, and compelled the negroes to join them. At length, becoming intoxicated, they were attacked and overcome by the men of a worshipping assembly, who, according to law, went armed. Most of them were put to death.

In May, 1742, a fleet was sent from Havana, from which in June,

debarked 2000 Spanish troops at St. Simons. Oglethorpe, with his wonted energy, had collected troops and posted himself at Frederica. He was not in sufficient force openly to attack the enemy, but was himself attacked by a party of Spaniards. His troops, particularly the Highlanders under Captain McIntosh, fought bravely, repulsed, and slew two hundred of the enemy at "the Bloody Marsh."

Oglethorpe, on being informed of a division in their camp, next determined on a surprise, and marched his army during the night within two miles of their entrenchments, when a French soldier of his party discharged his musket and ran into their lines. Discovery defeated every hope of success, and Oglethorpe returned to his camp. He then adroitly planned to make the Spaniards believe that the deserter was a spy, and was giving them information to mislead them. He wrote him a letter, urging him to give the Spanish such an account of the situation of his army as should induce them to attack him, or would, at any rate, serve to detain them in their own camp until the succors which he expected should arrive.

The Panic-Stricken Spaniards Flee.

This letter, as Oglethorpe had contrived, fell into the hands of the Spanish, who, having loaded the deserter with irons, were deliberating upon its contents, when they perceived off the coast some ships of war, which South Carolina had sent to Oglethorpe without his knowledge. Panic-struck, the Spaniards embarked, and left the coast in such haste that their artillery, provisions, and military stores fell into the hands of the Georgians.

Georgia, in its early settlement, was distinguished by the peculiar humanity in which it was founded. The chivalric Oglethorpe "sought not himself, but others;" and for ten years he gave his disinterested services, without claiming so much as a cottage or a farm. Though a brave warrior, compassion was the leading trait of his mind. Hence the imprisoned debtors of England, the unfortunate adherents of the Scottish Stewarts, and those holy persecuted men, the missionary Moravians of Germany, each found in him a father. His mercy was also extended to the African; and he would not, at first, allow a slave in his colony.

The refusal of Oglethorpe to allow the Georgians to possess slaves, when the adjoining colonies carried on their plantations by their labor, was greatly injurious to its pecuniary prosperity; and at length even the pious Moravians, a party of whom were, for a time, in Georgia, agreed that if their

salvation was regarded, it was, under the circumstances, proper to own and employ them. This opinion at length prevailed, it being also justified by the ardent and eloquent Whitfield, who, with the two Wesleys, the three founders of the sect of Methodists, sympathized with Oglethorpe in his benevolence; and each spent some time in America, assisting him in his



JOHN WESLEY.

enterprise. Whitfield founded, near Savannah, a house for orphans. In 1752 the trustees, wearied with a troublesome and profitless charge, resigned their office, and Georgia became a royal province.

Louisiana, after having been for fourteen years under a company of avaricious speculators formed at Paris, reverted to the French crown; and Bienville was appointed as governor. The Chickasaws were the dread of the Louisianians. They had incited the Natchez to commit cruel murders upon

the whites, which had ended in the entire destruction of that peculiar nation; the Great Sun himself, with four hundred of his subjects, having been sold into slavery. The Chickasaws occupied a large and beautiful tract east of the Mississippi, and on the head of the Tombigbee. This they would not allow the French to occupy, but maintained their own independence.

It was concerted in France that a force under Bienville should ascend the Tombigbee to meet an army collected from the region of the Illinois, under the young and valorous d'Artaguet. At the time appointed the ardent young warrior with his small army was in the country of the hostile savages; but the laggards from the south had not seasonably arrived. After a brave effort to subdue the Chickasaws, he was overcome. Bienville at length arrived, but the Indians, aware of his approach, and aided by English traders, received their army in such a manner that they threw their artillery into the Tombigbee, and, crest-fallen, returned down its stream. The Chickasaws compelled the brave d'Artaguet to witness the torture and death of his companions, one of whom was the same Vincennes who had given his name to the capital of Illinois. The young warrior was then dismissed to go and relate to the whites the deeds of the Chickasaws.

Four years afterwards a larger French and Indian force, aided by troops from Canada, invaded the country of the Chickasaws; but sickness wasted them, and at length Bienville, who led them, was glad to treat with the Indians on their own terms.

CHAPTER XV.

STORY OF CAPTAIN KIDD.

WE must now return to the history of the province of New York, of which the Earl of Bellamont became governor in 1698. He found, on taking charge of affairs, great irregularities which had grown up under the administration of Fletcher, his immediate predecessor. The navigation laws were not enforced, and piracy prevailed to an alarming extent. To the suppression of this great evil the governor, during his rule of three years, devoted his utmost energy.

He had entered upon this work, however, before he was governor. Captain William Kidd—sometimes, but wrongly, called Robert—was a daring privateersman in time of war, whose services under the English government attracted much favorable mention. Lord Bellamont was persuaded that Kidd was the best man that could be selected to send against the pirates, and a company was formed in London for the equipment of a ship, the “Adventure Galley,” to be placed under Kidd’s command. Six thousand pounds were subscribed by a number of gentlemen, among whom were Bellamont and several noblemen in England. The king was to receive one-tenth part of the treasure which might be taken, and not more than one-fourth of the prizes were to go to the crew.

The royal commission under which Kidd sailed authorized him to cruise against the French, and to seize certain notorious pirates who were mentioned by name. Unable fully to man his ship in the Thames, he sailed for New York, where he soon increased the number to one hundred and fifty. Among them were many characters gathered from the most desperate criminals in the provinces. Leaving New York in February, 1697, he headed for the coast of Madagascar, where the pirates were very numerous.

It was a five months’ voyage thither, and he cruised almost as long after reaching that latitude without taking a prize. Disgusted with his failure, he made for the west coast of Hindoostan, where no better fortune attended him. He finally turned pirate himself, and it is not impossible that such was his purpose when he disobeyed orders by sailing for Madagascar.

Much romance has been written about this famous rover of the seas. Few particulars of his voyages and exploits are known with certainty, but no doubt he was a thorough scoundrel, who, placing himself on good terms with the other pirates in those distant waters, plundered right and left, whenever opportunity presented. He was cruel to the last degree, and, when he landed, as he frequently did, he burned houses and murdered innocent people. He acquired enormous gains, so much so that it is said even the common sailors became wealthy. Having gained all the riches he wanted, he had the hardihood to set sail for Boston, believing he could bribe or deceive his former friends as to his guilt.

Orders Given to Arrest the Pirate.

But news having reached London that Kidd had become a pirate, orders were sent to the English colonies to use all efforts to arrest him. Before this could be done, he had burned his ship and dispersed his men. He deceived Lord Bellamont for a time, but he was finally arrested and sent to London, where he was hanged in 1701.

Ever since the death of this famous pirate, stories have been told of the riches which he buried at different points along the Atlantic coast. You would be astonished if you could learn how many persons have searched for those hidden treasures, which have never yet been, and are not likely to be, brought to light, since there is no reason to believe that the free-booter ever hid any part of his surplus wealth.

The increase of the number of proprietors in West Jersey had introduced great confusion into that province, disputes constantly arising not only among the settlers, but between the proprietors themselves; so that for three years it might be said that West Jersey had no regular authority whatever. On this account, in 1698, the proprietors surrendered the right of government to the crown. Queen Anne united it with the east province, and New Jersey, as the whole was now called, was to be ruled jointly with New York by a royal governor, having a separate council and assembly of representatives.

The Queen appointed, as governor of the two provinces, the worthless Lord Cornbury, who, as well as herself, was a grandchild of Lord Clarendon. He rendered himself odious to the people, squandering, for his own use, large sums of money which had been appropriated for public purposes, and left to his disposal as governor. In 1708 the assemblies of New York and New Jersey, no longer willing to submit to his government, drew up



DIGGING FOR TREASURES SUPPOSED TO BE BURIED BY CAPTAIN KIDD.

a complaint against him, and sent it to the queen. She removed him, and appointed Lord Lovelace in his room. After a short administration Lovelace was succeeded by Sir Robert Hunter, known as the friend of Dean Swift, and he, in 1719, by Peter Schuyler, so often mentioned as the mediator between the whites and Indians, he being the oldest member of the council. Commissioners were, at this time, appointed to draw the line of partition between the provinces of New York, New Jersey and Connecticut.

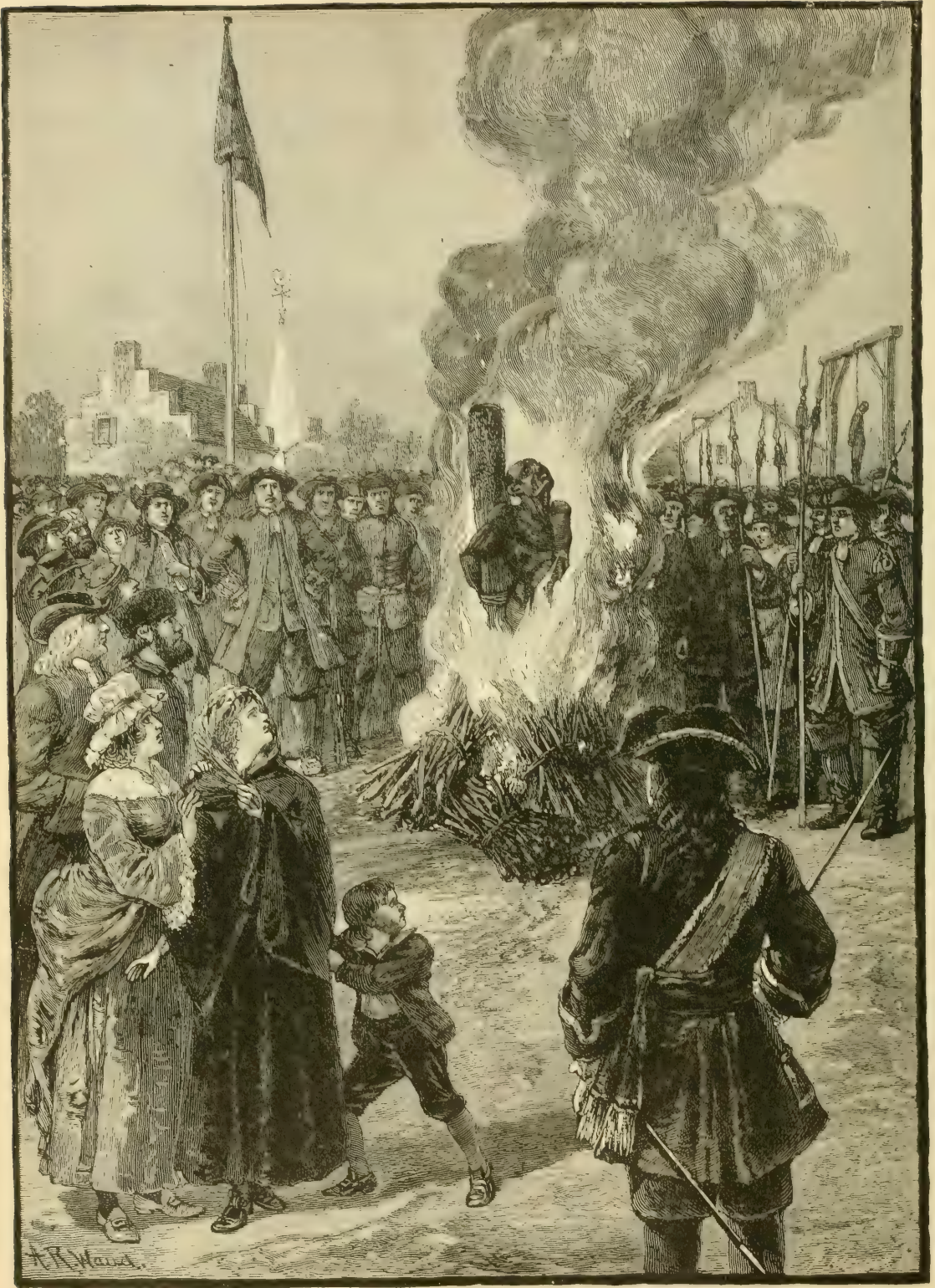
A Trading House made into a Fortress.

In 1720 Mr. Burnet succeeded Schuyler. In order to deprive the French of their supplies for the Indians, he instituted measures to stop the trade between New York and Canada; and by this means displeased the merchants. They being thus prohibited from a direct traffic with Canada, built a trading house at Oswego, which, in defiance of the protest of the French, and the displeasure of the Iroquois, was, in 1727, converted into a fortress. At length Burnet became so unpopular with the merchants, that though generally acceptable to the people, he was superseded in the government by Colonel Montgomery.

On his death the command devolved on Rip Van Dam, he being the oldest member of the council, and an eminent merchant. He passively permitted the encroachments of the French, and during his administration they erected a fort at Crown Point, which commanded Lake Champlain, and which was within the knowledge limits of New York.

A few years later occurred in New York the events of what is known in history as the "Negro Plot." Slaves at that time were numerous in the town and city. In the winter of 1740--41 fires broke out, and followed each other so rapidly that no doubt many of them were kindled on purpose, though it has been proved that a number of the first were purely accidental. The suspicion was aroused that the slaves caused these conflagrations with the intention of burning the town. One of the easiest things in the world is to start a panic. A proclamation was issued by the magistrates offering pardon, freedom and rewards to any slave who would bear witness against incendiaries and conspirators. Such inducements are sure to bring forward those who are eager to commit perjury for the sake of gain.

The magistrates did not have to wait. Some women of bad character swore that the negroes had formed a plot for burning the city and placing



one of their own number at the head of affairs. Other witnesses did their best to gain the reward by adding their testimony, which often was of the most worthless character. White men, too, were accused, and New York shuddered with a terror like that caused by the witchcraft delusion which swept through Massachusetts half a century before.

People went wild with panic, losing their judgment and sense of humanity and mercy. Before the strange excitement ended, over thirty persons had been executed, several of whom were burned at the stake, while others were transported. When the citizens regained their senses it came to be generally doubted, as many cool-headed persons had doubted all along, whether there had ever been any plot at all.


Crazed and Deluded for no Reason.

The story of this delusion is much like that of witchcraft in Massachusetts. A strange delirium seized the populace, and in the excited state of the public mind suspicions were easily formed. These did not need any basis of fact in order to convince the persons who entertained them that they were well founded. When an excited community makes up its mind to believe a thing, however absurd, no argument can prevent it. Facts are easily ignored for the time being, and only after the strange craze has begun to subside do people come to their senses and discover their mistake.

What horrible reproaches and pangs of self-torment must have taken possession of the credulous people of New York when they made the awful discovery that they had been killing persons who were entirely innocent of the crimes charged against them!

CHAPTER XVI.

THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

HE French, by virtue of the discoveries of Champlain, Marquette, La Salle, and others, claimed all the lands occupied by the waters flowing into the St. Lawrence and the Lakes, and all watered by the Mississippi and its branches. In fact, our whole country, according to their geographers, was New France, except that east of the great ranges of mountains, whose streams flow into the Atlantic; and of this portion they claimed the basin of the Kennebec, and all Maine to the east of that valley.

The British, on the other hand, asserted a right to the entire country, on account of the discovery of Cabot, as may be seen by their early patents, to which they gave an extension from the Atlantic to the Pacific. This title they had sought to strengthen. The chiefs of the confederate Iroquois had set up a claim, that their nations had, at some indefinite period, conquered the country of the Mississippi; and this title, such as it was, the English had bought.

But in this contest for the right, which was rather with the savage occupants of the soil, than with either of the disputants, one thing was evident; the question would ultimately be settled between them, by an appeal to arms; and the crisis approached.

The French had formed the vast plan of a chain of forts to connect their settlements, recently made at the mouth of the Mississippi, with their earlier colonies on the St. Lawrence. They had accomplished their purpose in part, having fortresses along the Lakes as far as the southern shore of Lake Erie, where they had two forts, one at Presque Isle, and another on French creek, twelve miles south. On the Mississippi, and on the Ohio and its branches, they had also their fortifications.

A number of gentlemen, mostly in Virginia, of whom Lawrence Washington was one, procured, in 1750, an act of the British Parliament, constituting them "the Ohio Company," and granting them six hundred thousand acres of land on or near the Ohio river. They caused the tract

to be surveyed, and opened a trade with the Indians in the vicinity. This becoming known to the French, the governor of Canada complained to the authorities of New York and Pennsylvania, threatening to seize their traders if they did not quit their territory; and several of their number were accordingly taken and carried to the fort at Presque Isle.

A Trader who Acted as a Spy.

The governor of Virginia, the zealous and active Dinwiddie, alarmed at these movements on the part of the French, had sent a trader among them as a spy, who, returning, increased his fears by vague accounts of the French posts near Lake Erie, without gratifying his curiosity as to the number or object of their forces. Dinwiddie determined, although the season was advanced, to send immediately a trusty person to require the French commandant to quit the territory; and also to bring back such an account of his strength and position, that if he refused peaceably to retreat, some feasible method of ejection might be adopted. A young man of twenty-two, an officer of the militia, was chosen. His figure was commanding, his air inspired respect and confidence. His name was George Washington.

Major Washington was now placed over one of the four divisions into which Dinwiddie had portioned the militia of "the Dominion," the name then given to Virginia. He introduced a uniform discipline, and infused throughout his command his own military spirit. It was at this period that he was chosen by the governor as his envoy to the French. The seat of government for Virginia was Williamsburg. Thither Washington repaired, and was furnished with instructions and dispatches; the most important of which was a letter from Dinwiddie, to St. Pierre the French commandant, requiring him with threats, to withdraw from the territory belonging to the English sovereign.

Washington departed late in October, 1753, to traverse more than five hundred miles, much of the way a pathless, as well as a wintry desert. His route lay through Fredericksburg, Alexandria and Winchester, to Will's Creek, since Cumberland. Here, taking leave of every vestige of civilization, and having procured Mr. Gist, agent of the Ohio company, as interpreter and guide, his party of eight plunged into the recesses of the wilderness. They passed through snow and storms, over mountain precipices, and down among thickets into flooded valleys, to ford unbridged and

swollen rivers on frail and dangerous rafts. Coming upon the Youghiogeny they followed it to the Monongahela, and that to its junction with the Alleghany. "The Fork," as the site of Pittsburg was called, was then a desert, but Washington noticed, and afterwards reported it, as a suitable place for a fort.

From the Fork he went down the river twenty miles to Logstown, where he was to deliver friendly greetings from Dinwiddie to the great chief of the Southern Hurons, Tanacharison, or the Half-king; whose friendship was courted both by French and English. The chief received him with kindness. He had been, he told Washington, to the French camp and had there made a set speech, in which he declared to the officers that the land in question belonged neither to the English nor the French; but the Great Spirit had given it to the Indians, and allowed them to make it their residence. "I desire you, therefore," said he, "to withdraw, as I have our brothers, the English; for I will keep you at arm's length."

He would Obey his Orders.

After Major Washington had attended a friendly council with the Indians, Tanacharison and three of his principal men, accompanied him north, more than a hundred miles to the encampment at French Creek. Here St. Pierre, who had been but a few days in command of the post, received him with the courteous bearing and hospitable attentions of the French gentleman. But to Dinwiddie's request that he would leave the territory which belonged to the British, he replied, after two days consultation with his officers, that it did not become him to discuss treaties; such questions should rather be addressed to the Governor-General, the Marquis du Quesne; he acted under his orders, and those he should be careful to obey.

Washington and his party, by previous concert, had been making every possible observation on the state of the forces and camp, and now receiving the reply of St. Pierre, he was desirous to depart; but the French were tampering with the Indians, and unwilling to dismiss the Half-king, until they had corrupted his fidelity; but in this they failed.

The return of Washington in the dead of winter was full of startling and perilous adventure. Once a treacherous guide aimed his musket at him, but it missed fire; and once, on the Alleghany River, he and his guide, having made in a day, with one poor hatchet, a miserable raft, they

at sunset trusted themselves upon it to cross the swollen river, amidst large masses of floating ice. It came down upon them, and threw them from their raft into ten feet water. But they saved themselves by swimming to an island.

Major Washington arrived at Williamsburg on the 16th of January, having been absent only eleven weeks. The boldness, energy and prudence with which he had met and overcome dangers, and the ability which he had manifested in the discharge of his trust, sunk deep into the minds of his countrymen; and his written reports were published with applause, not only through the colonies, but in England.

Troops were now raised in Virginia, and Washington was made lieutenant-colonel and intrusted with the command. In April, 1754, he marched into the disputed territory, and, encamping at the Great Meadows, he there learned that the French had dispossessed the Virginians of a fort which, in consequence of his recommendation, they were erecting at the Fork, and which the French finished and named Fort du Quesne. He was also informed that a detachment of French troops had been sent against him, and were encamped but a few miles west of the Great Meadows.

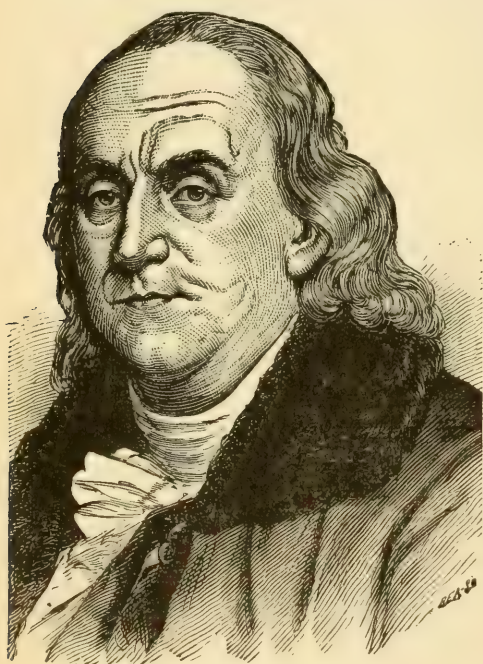
The Little Army Intrenched in the Fort.

Surrounding their encampment he surprised and defeated them. The commander, De Jumonville, was killed, with ten of his party. On his return to the Great Meadows he was reinforced by regulars from New York and South Carolina, and erected there a small stockade called Fort Necessity.

With less than 400 men Washington now marched to dislodge the enemy from Fort du Quesne; but after proceeding thirteen miles he received the intelligence that they had been reinforced from Canada, when he reluctantly relinquished the enterprise and retired. Unable to continue his retreat, from a failure of expected munitions, he intrenched his little army within Fort Necessity. A party of 1,500 French, under Monsieur De Villiers, soon followed and assaulted the fort; the Americans bravely resisted, from ten in the morning until dark. Washington deeming it folly longer to contend with so unequal a force, signed, in the course of the night, articles of capitulation, by which the fort was surrendered, but the garrison permitted to march out with the honors of war, and return unmolested to their homes.

The British cabinet had perceived that a war was inevitable. Accord-

ingly in their instructions to the colonies, in 1753, they directed them to cultivate the friendship of the Six Nations, and recommended what they had at a former period proposed, though not formally, that a union be formed among the colonies for their mutual protection and defense. Agreeably to these instructions a congress was held at Albany in June, 1754, to which delegates were sent from Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania and Maryland. About one hundred and fifty Indians of the Six Nations were present, with whom the convention concluded an explanatory and pacific treaty, and then proceeded to consider the subject of the proposed union.



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

Their situation, with regard to the French, called for immediate and effectual measures; and it was unanimously resolved "that a union of the colonies was absolutely necessary for their preservation." Desiring that their counsels, treasure and strength might be employed in due proportion against the common enemy, a committee, consisting of one member from each colony represented, was appointed to draw a plan of union. That which was drawn by Benjamin Franklin, of Pennsylvania, was substantially adopted and signed on the 4th of July, twenty-two years before this great statesman signed that more important instrument, which he also assisted in forming—the Declaration of Independence.

The delegates from Connecticut alone refused their consent to this plan, and on the ground that it gave too much power to the presiding general, who was to be appointed over the colonies by the crown. It was presented to the colonial legislatures and the British parliament for their sanction, but it was rejected by both; by the colonies because it gave too much power to the crown, and by the crown because it gave too much power to the people; thus showing how widely different, even at this period, were the views of Great Britain and her colonies respecting the rights of the latter, and foreboding the contest and separation which afterwards followed.

The ministry, having rejected this scheme of union, proposed to Governor Shirley and others, that the governors of the colonies (most of whom were appointed by the crown), attended by one or more of their council, should meet from time to time to concert measures for the general defense, with power to draw on the British treasury for such sums of money as they needed; which sums were, however, to be reimbursed by a tax, to be imposed on the colonies. But the colonies were not so to be drawn into a consent to submit to a taxation by Great Britain, and they rejected the plan. As the only alternative, the crown then resolved to carry on the war with British troops and such auxiliary forces as the colonial assemblies might voluntarily furnish; and to this the Americans cheerfully assented.

The establishment of French posts on the Ohio, and the attack upon Colonel Washington, were stated by the British government as the commencement of hostilities; and 1500 troops, under General Braddock, were dispatched from England. On his arrival in America, he requested a convention of the colonial governors to assemble in Virginia, to concert with him a plan of military operations.

Planning for a Combined Attack.

Four expeditions were here resolved upon. General Braddock was to attack Fort du Quesne; Governor Shirley was to lead the American regulars and Indians against Niagara; the militia of the northern colonies were to be directed against Crown Point; and Nova Scotia was to be invaded. Early in the spring the French sent out a powerful fleet, carrying a large body of troops, under the Baron Dieskau, to reinforce the army in Canada.

For the expedition against Nova Scotia three thousand men, under Generals Monckton and Winslow, sailed from Boston in May. They arrived at Chignecto, on the Bay of Fundy, the 1st of June. Here they were joined by 300 British troops, and proceeding against Beau Sejour, now the principal post of the French in that country, invested and took possession of it, after a bombardment of five days. The fleet appearing in the river St. John, the French set fire to their works, and evacuated the country. With the loss of only twenty men, the English took possession of Nova Scotia.

Colonel Washington, on his return from the Great Meadows, had public thanks voted him by the house of burgesses. He rejoined his regiment at Alexandria, and was ordered by the governor to fill up his companies by enlistments—go back immediately—conquer the French, and build a fort

beyond the mountains. He wrote to a member of the council, showing the folly and impracticability of the scheme; and it was given up.

Dinwiddie had new plans. He reorganized the militia into independent companies, so that there was now no higher office than captain. Washington promptly offered his resignation, but his services being needed, he was warmly solicited to remain, and it was hinted that he might keep his commission. This he indignantly rejected, as neither rank nor emolument were offered with it; and he wrote that those who supposed he would accept it on such terms must think him "more empty than the commission itself."

Pushed on Regardless of Danger.

Braddock, when he arrived, requested Colonel Washington to become one of his military family, preserving his rank. This Washington did not hesitate to accept, because he knew his own value to his country, and wished to improve in military skill. General Braddock marched from Virginia in June; but such were the delays occasioned by the difficulty of procuring horses, wagons, and provisions, that, by the advice of Washington, he left the heavy baggage behind, under the care of Colonel Dunbar, with an escort of 600 men, and placing himself at the head of 1,200 select troops, he proceeded by more rapid marches, towards Fort du Quesne.

Braddock was not deficient in courage, or military skill; but he was wholly ignorant of the mode of conducting warfare in American woods and morasses, and at the same time he held the opinions of the colonial officers in contempt. Nevertheless, Washington had ventured to suggest the expediency of employing the Indians, who, under the Half-king, had offered their services, as scouting, and advance parties. Braddock not only disdained the advice, but offended the Indians by the rudeness of his manner. Thus he rashly pushed on, without knowing the dangers near.

Washington had, the day before, rejoined the army, from which he had been for a short time detained by severe illness. It was noon, on the 9th of July, when, from the height above the right bank of the Monongahela, he looked back upon the ascending army, which, ten miles from Fort du Quesne, had just crossed the stream for the second time. Every thing looked more bright and beautiful than aught he had ever witnessed before. The companies, in their crimson uniform, with burnished arms and floating banners, were marching gaily to cheerful music as they entered the forest.

Suddenly there burst upon them the Indian war-whoop, and a deadly fire, from opposite quarters, and from unseen foes. Many fell. Panic-stricken, their ranks broke, and they would have fled, but Braddock rallied them; and, a bigot to the rules of European warfare, he constantly sought to preserve a regular order of battle. Thus he kept his men like sheep penned in a fold, fair marks for a foe beyond their reach, and whose numbers were so much inferior to their own, that they had not dreamed of



DISASTROUS DEFEAT OF GENERAL BRADDOCK.

defeating, but only expected to annoy and delay the British army. Their places of concealment were two ravines on each side of the road; but Braddock would neither retreat, or pass beyond that fatal spot.

The Indians, singling out the officers, shot down every one on horseback, Washington alone excepted. He, as the sole remaining aid of the general, rode by turns over every part of the field to carry his orders. The Indians afterwards averred that they had specially noticed his bearing and conspicuous figure, and repeatedly shot at him; but at length they became convinced that he was protected by an Invisible Power, and that no bullet could harm him. After the battle was over four were found lodged in his coat, and two horses had been killed under him; but the appointed guardian of his country escaped without a wound.

Braddock, who had been undismayed amidst continued showers of bullets, at length received a mortal wound. Upon his fall the regular troops fled in confusion. Washington formed, and covered their retreat with the provincials, whom Braddock in his contempt had kept in the rear. The defeat was total; sixty-four officers out of eighty-five, and nearly half the privates, were killed or wounded.

Death of General Braddock.

The flight of the army was so precipitate that it made no halt till it met the division under Dunbar, then about forty miles in the rear, where Braddock died. To this division was communicated the same spirit of flight, and they continued to retreat till they reached Fort Cumberland, one hundred and twenty miles from the place of action. The command now devolved on Colonel Dunbar, who withdrew the regulars to Philadelphia, leaving the whole frontier of Virginia open to the depredations of the French and Indians.

The French at Fort du Quesne attempted to seduce the Cherokees from English interest. Some of their tribe gave notice of this to the governor of South Carolina, who, at their suggestion, met a council of the Cherokee chiefs in their own country, and concluded with them a treaty of peace and amity, in which they ceded to Great Britain a large tract of land in South Carolina.

CHAPTER XVII.

THE STORY OF CANADA AND QUEBEC.

THE campaign of 1757 was made no less disgraceful to the English than the former, by the futile schemes and inefficient measures of Lord Loudon. It is chiefly memorable in our annals for the dreadful "massacre at Fort William Henry." Montcalm, the French commander,

had early concentrated his forces, amounting to 9000 regulars, Canadians and Indians, on the shores of the Champlain, at Ticonderoga. Passing up Lake George, he laid siege to Fort William Henry, was commanded by Col. Monroe, a British officer. Gen. Webb was at the time lying at Fort Edward, with the main British army, four or five thousand strong.

Monroe, being vigorously pressed, while he defended himself with spirit, earnestly entreated Gen. Webb for aid. But he entreated in vain, and necessity compelled him, in August, to surrender. By the articles of capitulation Montcalm engaged that the English should be allowed to leave the fort with the honors of war; and, in order to protect them from the Indians, that an escort should be provided to conduct them to fort Edward.



GENERAL MONTCALM.

Soon after a detachment of the French took possession of the works. At the same moment the Indians, who had engaged to serve in the war on the promise of plunder, irritated at the terms of the surrender, rushed over the parapet, and began their outrages. Monroe, feeling the horrors of his situation, with his troops exposed at midnight, within the camp, to the cruelty of the savages, vainly attempted to conduct them forth; but no sooner had he put them in motion than he found that, bad as was their position within, it was worse without, for the woods were infested with ferocious Indians thirsting for blood and plunder. He complained to Montcalm, and, demanding the promised escort, left the camp at morning to begin his march for Fort Edward.

A Cold-Blooded Massacre.

The French, themselves intimidated, gave them only the poor meed of advice, to yield up their private property as a means of appeasing the furious savages and saving life. They attempted this, and threw them their money and effects; but their rapacity increasing with this partial gratification, they rushed, tomahawk in hand, upon the English, now a band of desperate fugitives who, stripping off their clothes, were glad to escape naked with their lives. The sick, the wounded, the women and the children, unable to escape, were murdered. Webb, on receiving intelligence of the capitulation, ordered five hundred men to meet the captured troops, and conduct them to his camp. The few who survived were discovered flying through the woods, singly or in small parties—some distracted, and many bleeding with the horrid cuts of the tomahawk—faint and nearly exhausted.

There is little in the separate civil history of the colonies, during this period, which deserves particular attention. In all their proceedings with the royal governors, as well as in their direct intercourse with Great Britain, the colonists evinced that jealousy of their liberties which prevented any bold attempt, on the part of Great Britain, to enforce restrictive measures, especially during the war.

In Pennsylvania a dispute arose between the proprietary governor and the assembly, respecting the right of the proprietors to exempt their own lands in the province from a taxation, the object of which was to pay for the defence of those lands. To adjust this dispute Benjamin Franklin was sent to England, and the business was soon closed by the proprietors submitting their property to be taxed, provided the assessments were just.

The languid and spiritless manner in which the war had been conducted, and its consequent ill success, aroused both England and America, and produced a reaction which brought forward as prime minister, the greatest statesman of the British annals, William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham. So powerful was his eloquence and so austere his patriotism, that he controlled at length the energies of the government and the spirit of the people. His dreaded voice fearlessly denounced the selfishness and pusillanimity of the public agents. With intense search he found out worth, and resolutely brought it forward for public employment. His perseverance was equal to his energy; and his efforts were guided by a judgment, which whilst it was rapid, was, at the same time, profound and comprehensive.

Aware that the colonies were in danger of becoming discouraged by the inefficiency of the parent country, the minister assured them, in a circular

which he addressed to the governors of the provinces, that an effectual force should be sent against the French; and he exhorted them to use their utmost exertions to raise men in their respective colonies, pledging himself that their own choice should direct by what officers their troops should be commanded; and that those of the colonies should no longer be



WILLIAM PITT, EARL OF CHATHAM.

made inferior to British officers of the same rank. Reassured and animated by this call, the colonists renewed their efforts and increased their army to twenty thousand.

General Abercrombie was appointed to succeed the Earl of Loudon in the command of all the British forces in America. An armament was sent out under Admiral Boscawen, conveying twelve thousand British troops commanded by General Amherst, which, with the British forces previously in America, and the provincials, made up an army far greater than had ever before existed in America. These troops were all in readiness for action early in the spring. Nor were they delayed by irresolution as to the objects to be attempted. These having been well considered the preceding winter, three expeditions were resolved on, against Louisburg, Crown Point and Fort du Quesne.

The Town Captured after a Regular Siege.

The possession of Louisburg was deemed important, principally, because it would, by opening the gulf of St. Lawrence to the English, facilitate the seizure of the capital of Canada; the grand project of the British minister having in view the absolute destruction of the French power in America. The enterprise against this fortress was conducted by the land and naval commanders, Amherst and Boscawen, with twenty ships of the line, and 14,000 men. The armament left Halifax late in May, and arrived before Louisburg early in June.

A regular siege, the best conducted of any which had ever been laid in America, placed this fortress in the hands of the British. It was by his gallant conduct during this siege, that James Wolfe began his high career of military renown. The loss of Louisburg was deeply felt by France, and its gain by England and her rejoicing colonies. The garrison and mariners, to the amount of nearly 6000, went prisoners to England, and the inhabitants of the place were transported to France. With Louisburg the whole island of Cape Breton, and that of St. John's, fell under the power of the British.

General Abercrombie, at the head of 16,000 men, proceeded against Ticonderoga and Crown Point. Early in July he crossed Lake George, and debarking at its northern extremity, he attempted, with unskilled guides, to pass the three miles of dense woods which lay between his army and Ticonderoga. As he approached that fort a detachment of the French fell

upon him, and an engagement ensued in which the assailants lost 300 men; but of the British fell the amiable Lord Howe; a young officer of great promise, and much beloved both in England and America.

Abercrombie, learning that reinforcements were daily expected by the French, without waiting for his artillery, made a brave but imprudent assault upon the fort, and was repulsed with the heavy loss of nearly two thousand killed and wounded.

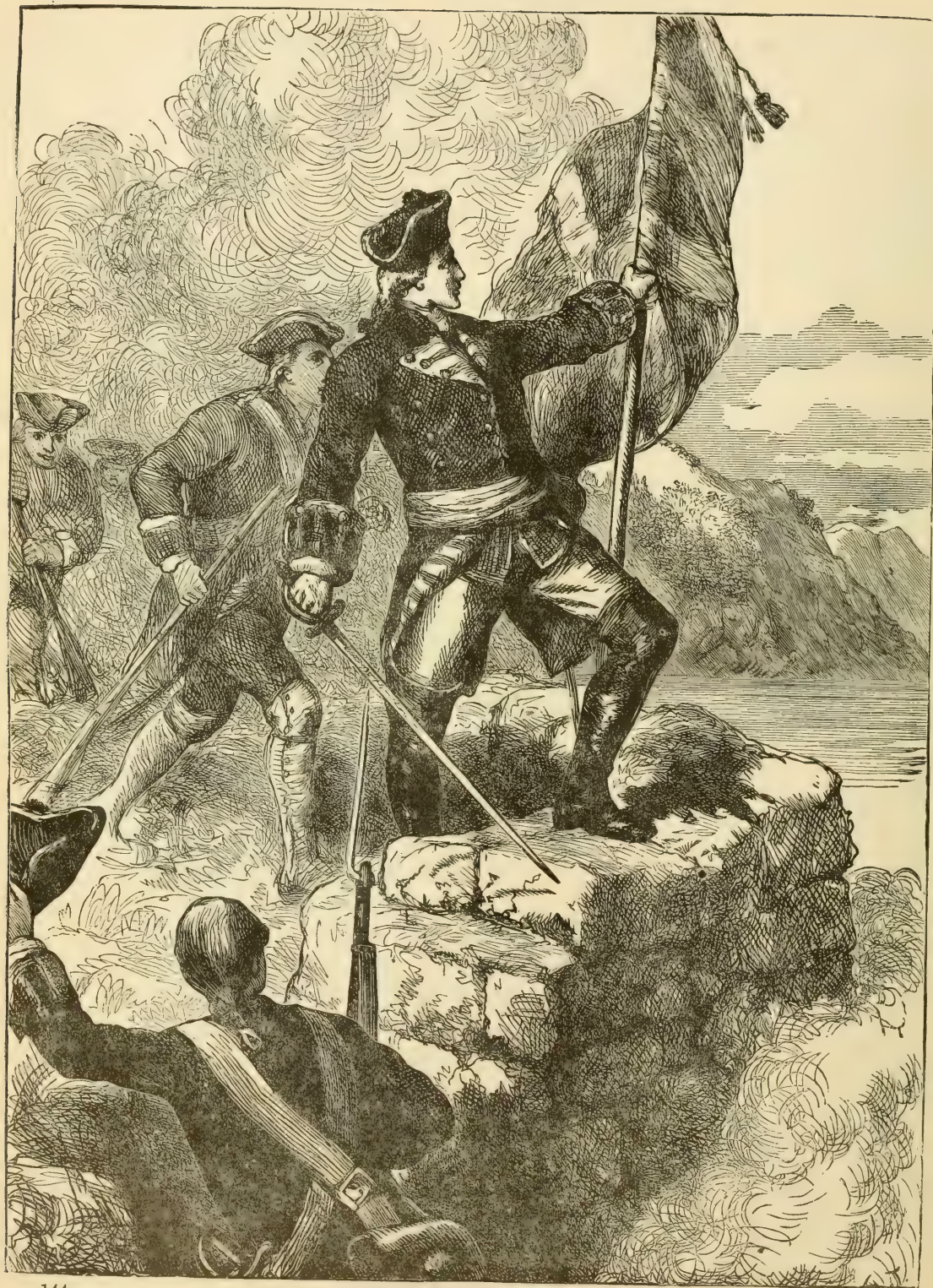
He then retired to his former quarters, on the south side of Lake George. Here he consented, at the solicitation of Colonel Bradstreet, to detach him with 3000 men, against Fort Frontenac. With these troops, who were mostly provincials, he marched to Oswego, embarked on Lake Ontario, and landed late in August within a mile of the fort, opened his batteries, and in two days forced this important fortress to surrender. As this fort, afterwards named Kingston, contained the military stores which were intended for the Indians, and for the supply of the southwestern troops, its demolition



GENERAL JAMES WOLFE.

contributed to the success of the expedition against Fort du Quesne.

To General Forbes, with an army of 8000 men, was assigned the capture of this fort. Early in July the army marched from Philadelphia to Ray's Town. Washington, gratified that the expedition was at length to be undertaken, was at Cumberland with the Virginia militia, whom he commanded, and who were in readiness to join the main army. Here he learned to his surprise, that General Forbes, induced by the citizens of Philadelphia, had decided to open a new road from Ray's Town to the Ohio. In vain Washington remonstrated.



But before the army had arrived the weather became so cold and the men endured such severe sufferings that a council of officers decided that they must abandon their object and return. This they were about to do when they received such intelligence of the weakness of the French garrison, that they roused to fresh effort, and late in November reached du Quesne. But it was only a solitary pile of ruins which they found. On the preceding night the French had set fire to the fort, and embarked to go down the Ohio.

While the army were engaged in making the new road, Major Grant with a detachment had been suffered to throw himself forward, so as to encounter the full force of the French garrison. He was totally defeated and made prisoner, with eighteen of his officers. Three hundred of his party were either killed or taken by the enemy. New works were erected on the site of du Quesne, and named Fort Pitt.

The Whole Garrison Captured.

More distant Indian tribes felt that their safety, since the capture of Fort du Quesne, was best consulted by peace with the English, and at a grand council held in Easton, Pa., deputies from the Six Nations met with those from New England, and from the tribes ranging along the eastern Alleghanies, as far south as North Carolina. On the part of the English, Sir William Johnson and the governors of New York and New Jersey entered with them into friendly relations, and the calumet sent up to heaven a far more grateful odor than the steam of reeking battle-fields.

The campaign of 1759 had for its object the entire reduction of Canada. Prideaux besieged Niagara on the 6th of July. He was killed by the bursting of a shell, and the command devolved upon Sir William Johnson. The French gave battle to the English, but the Indians in their alliance deserted them in the heat of the engagement, and victory declared in favor of the English. The garrison, consisting of six hundred men, fell into the hands of the British, who now possessing this important post, all communication between the northern and southern possessions of the French was barred, and the quiet behavior of the Indians secured.

After the taking of Louisburg, Wolfe returned to England. Pitt, who had discerned his extraordinary qualities while he was yet obscure, and had brought him forward against the prejudices of the King, and resolutely sustained him, confided to him the command against Quebec. His sub-

ordinate officers were carefully chosen. He was provided with a choice army of eight thousand men, and a heavy train of artillery. Admirals Saunders and Holmes, seamen of great merit, commanded the fleet.

It was late in June when the army debarked upon the Island of Orleans. From this spot Wolfe reconnoitered the position of his enemy, and saw the full magnitude of the difficulties which surrounded him. The city of Quebec rose before him upon the north side of the St. Lawrence; its upper town and strong fortifications, situated on a rock, whose bold and steep front continued far westward, parallel with the river, its base near to the shore; thus presenting a wall, which it seemed impossible to scale. From the northwest came down the St. Charles, entering the St. Lawrence just below the town; its banks high and uneven, and cut by deep ravines while armed vessels were borne upon its waters, and floating batteries obstructed its entrance. A few miles below the Montmorenci leapt down its cataract into the St. Lawrence; and, strongly posted along the sloping bank of that river, and between these two tributaries, the French army, commanded by Montcalm, displayed its formidable lines.

Heavy Batteries Opened on the Town.

The first measure of Wolfe was to get possession of Point Levi, opposite Quebec. Here he erected and opened heavy batteries, which swept from the lower town, the buildings along the margin of the river; but the fortifications, resting on the huge table of rock above, remained uninjured.

Perceiving this, Wolfe next sought to draw the enemy from his entrenchments, and bring on an engagement. For this purpose he landed his army below the Montmorenci; but the wary Montcalm eluded every artifice to draw him out. Wolfe next crossed the stream with a portion of his army, and attacked him in his camp. The troops which were to commence the assault fell into disorder, having, with irregular ardor, disobeyed the orders of the general. Perceiving their confusion, he drew them off with the loss of four hundred men, and recrossed the Montmorenci. Here he was informed that his expected succors were likely to fail him.

Amherst had found Ticonderoga and Crown Point vacated, and was preparing to attack the French forces withdrawn from these forts to the Isle aux Noix. Prideaux had lost his life, but his plans were carried out by Sir William Johnson. But the enemy were in force at Montreal; and from neither division of the British army could the commander at Quebec

now hope for any assistance. At this point of the enterprise Wolfe was severely tried. The plan which he had revolved in his mind, and, with the approbation of his officers, had determined to attempt, was to scale, in the night, and at some distance above Quebec, the bold precipice on which the fortifications were built, and thus reach the level plain above, called the Heights of Abraham.

Montcalm, perceiving that something was to be attempted, dispatched M. de Bourgainville, with one thousand five hundred men, to move higher up the St. Lawrence and watch the motions of the English. Wolfe, pursuant to his plan, broke up his camp at Montmorenci and returned to Orleans. Then embarking with his army he directed Admiral Holmes, who commanded the fleet, in which himself and the army had embarked, to sail up the river several miles higher than the intended point of debarkation. This movement deceived De Bourgainville, and gave Wolfe the advantage of the current to float his boats down to the destined spot.

Wolfe's Army Scales the Precipice.

This was done about an hour before daylight. Wolfe was the first man who leaped on shore. When he saw the difficulties around him, he said to some one near, "I do not believe there is a possibility of getting up, but we must do our endeavor." The rapidity of the stream was hurrying along their boats, and some had already gone beyond the narrow landing-place. The shore was so shelving that it was almost impossible to ascend, and it was lined with French sentinels. One of these hailed, and was answered by a captain, who fully understood the French language, and who had been especially instructed for this purpose.

Escaping these dangers at the water's edge, they proceeded, though with the utmost difficulty, to scale the precipice, pulling themselves up by the roots and branches of the trees and the projecting rocks in their way. The first party who reached the heights secured a small battery, which crowned them; and thus the remainder of the army ascended in safety, and there, on this lofty plain which commands one of the most magnificent prospects which nature has formed, the British army, drawn up in a highly advantageous position, were, in the morning, discovered by the French.

Montcalm, learning with surprise and deep regret the advantage gained by his opponent, left his strong position, crossed the St. Charles, and, displaying his lines for battle, intrepidly led on the attack. Being on the left

of the French, he was opposed to Wolfe, who was occupying the right of the British forces. In the heat of the engagement both commanders were mortally wounded.

The wound with which Wolfe fell was the third which he had received in the battle. He was removed from the field; but he watched it with



DEATH OF GENERAL WOLFE BEFORE QUEBEC.

intense anxiety as, faint with the loss of blood, he reclined his languid head upon the supporting arm of an officer. A cry was heard, "They fly, they fly!" "Who fly?" he exclaimed. "The enemy," was the reply. "Then," said he, "I die content;" and expired. Not less heroic was the death of Montcalm. He rejoiced when told that his wound was mortal; "For," said he, "I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec.

After the battle the affairs of the English were conducted with great discretion by General Townshend, whereas the French, in their panic, appear to have yielded at once to the suggestions of their fears. The capitulation of Quebec was signed within five days after the battle. Townshend gave

favorable terms to the garrison, for he knew that the resources of the French were by no means exhausted.

The French, in retiring from Fort du Quesne, passed into Louisiana. On their route they had intrigued with the Cherokees, who continued a predatory war upon the Carolinians. General Amherst, in 1760, sent Colonel Montgomery with a body of regulars to their relief. Being joined by such forces as could be raised in Carolina, he marched into the Cherokee country, destroyed all their lower towns, and was approaching Etchoc, the first of their middle settlements, when he was attacked, in an almost impenetrable thicket, by a large body of savages. In the battle which ensued the English claimed the victory; but so great was their loss, that they immediately retreated from the country.

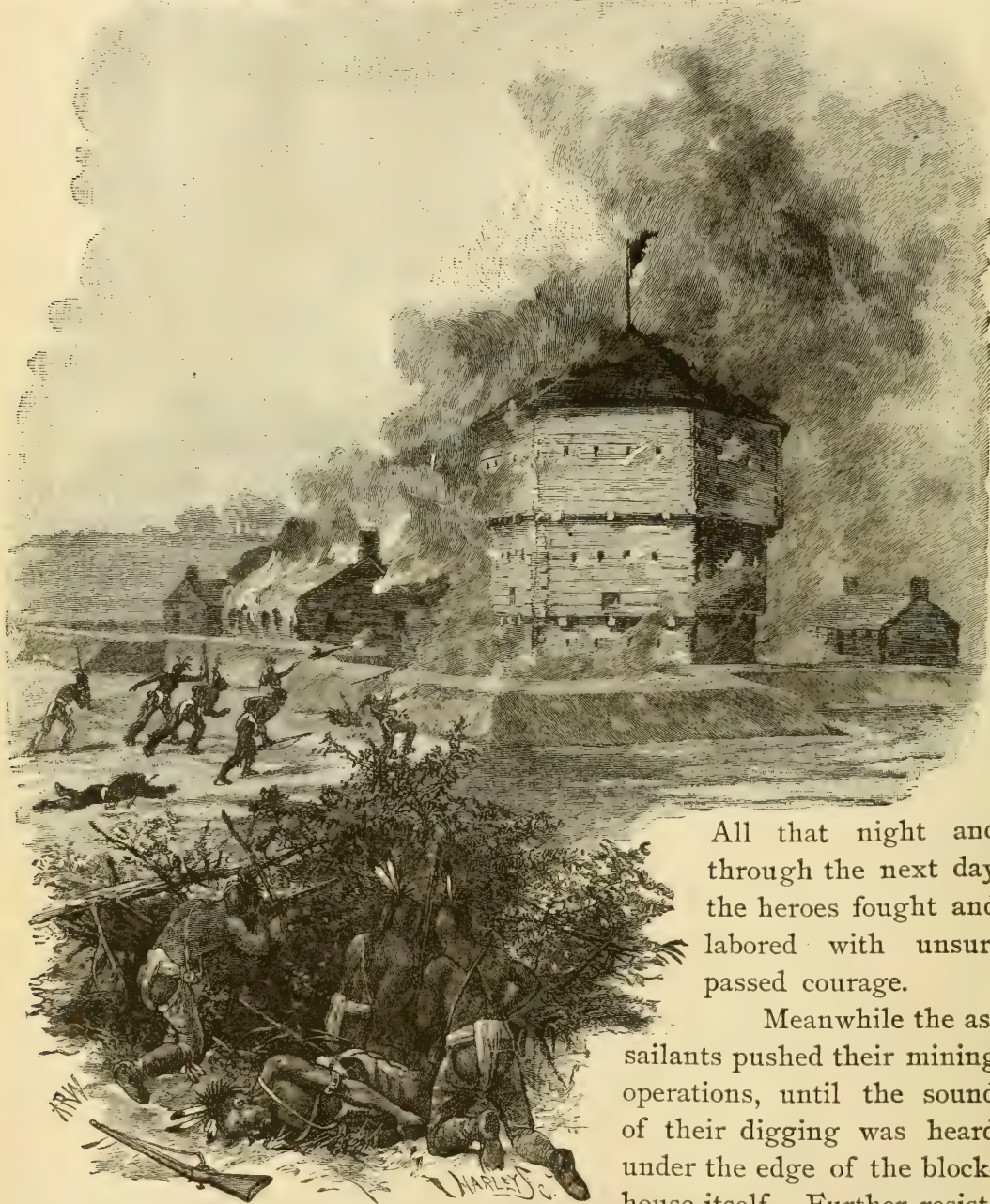
Fierce Attack on the Block-House.

There was hard fighting at Fort Presque Isle, which stood near the present site of Erie, Pennsylvania, and was under the command of Ensign Christie, with a courageous garrison. Early on June 15th, it was surrounded by two hundred Indians, most of them from the neighborhood of Detroit. The garrison immediately withdrew to the block-house, prepared to fight as long as the last hope remained. As at other points, burning arrows rained upon the roof, which repeatedly caught fire, but was as often extinguished by the cool daring of the soldiers. The assailants threw up a rude but strong breastwork on a ridge commanding the fort, and for two days and a half the desperate fight continued.

A number of the Indians, with unusual daring, attempted to run from behind their breastworks, and shelter themselves close to the walls of the fort, but the watchful garrison picked off every one of them. The defenders, though as sparing in the use of water as possible, were compelled to use all they had to fight the flames that broke out again and again. The well in the parade ground was swept by the iron sleet, so that it was sure death to seek water from that source. Then the men set to work to dig a well inside the block-house. By the most desperate toil, they succeeded in reaching water just in time to extinguish the flames kindled by the blazing arrows.

The bravery of the garrison only nerved the assailants to more determined work. They began a mine, and, there being no way of checking them, succeeded in reaching and firing the house of the commanding officer. The

smoke and heat almost stifled the garrison, but they held out grimly, and, whenever they could catch sight of a dusky figure, riddled it with bullets.



ATTACK ON THE FORT AT PRESQUE ISLE.

All that night and through the next day the heroes fought and labored with unsurpassed courage.

Meanwhile the assailants pushed their mining operations, until the sound of their digging was heard under the edge of the block-house itself. Further resistance could avail nothing, and Ensign Christie agreed to surrender under pledge that he and his exhausted

men should be allowed to depart unmolested. The promise was given, but broken; all were bound and taken as prisoners to Pontiac's camp, from which Christie succeeded in escaping and reaching the fort at Detroit.

Pontiac's Treachery Discovered.

Pontiac chose to command in person at Detroit, that post being regarded as the key to the upper country. The Indians, to the number of six hundred, had collected in the woods about the fort. In the evening a squaw, who had been kindly treated, betrays to Major Gladwin, the commandant, the designs of the savages. Pontiac, with a party of his chiefs, present themselves as in peace, desiring to hold a council with the officers within the fort. They are admitted, but to their surprise immediately surrounded by the garrison, fully armed. Major Gladwin approaches Pontiac, lifts his blanket, and finds a short rifle concealed beneath it. Similar ones are sought for and found upon each of his party. Thus unexpectedly discovered, Pontiac himself was disconcerted. The Indians from without were not let in; but the chief escaped, or was suffered to go forth.

He then besieged the fort, holding the garrison confined for many months, and cutting off supplies and reinforcements. At length his allies grew weary of war, and peace was concluded. Pontiac died three years afterwards.

CHAPTER XVIII.

BEGINNING OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

IN 1765 Lord Grenville introduced into the British Parliament his plan for taxing America, to commence with duties on stamps. By this act no written instrument could be legal unless the paper on which it was drawn was stamped; and this stamped paper was to be purchased, at exorbitant prices, of the agents of the British Government. Provision was made for the recovery of penalties for the breach of this act, as of all others relating to trade and revenue, in any admiralty, or king's marine court, throughout the colonies. These courts proceeded in trials, without the intervention of a jury. This act, both in regard to the suspension of what the colonists regarded as one of the most important of their rights, that of trial by jury, and also in regard to that extension of jurisdiction, by which they were liable to be called to trial for real or supposed offenses, to distant provinces, was, next to that for direct taxation, the most obnoxious to the colonies of any aggression of the British government.

In the House of Commons the project, though ably supported, met with ardent and animated opposition. It was on this occasion that Colonel Barre was roused to that unpremeditated effort of eloquence which has made his name, to this day, appear to Americans like that of a friend.

In answer to Charles Townshend, he having caught that orator's last expression, he rose and exclaimed, "Children planted by your care! No! Your oppressions planted them in America! They fled from your tyranny to an uncultivated land, where they were exposed to all the hardships to which human nature is liable, and, among others, to the cruelties of a savage foe the most subtle and, I will take it upon me to say, the most terrible that ever inherited any part of God's earth. Nourished by your indulgence! No! They grew by your neglect! When you began to care about them that care was exercised in sending persons to rule over them whose character and conduct has caused the blood of these sons of liberty to recoil within them. Protected by your arms! They have nobly taken

up arms in your defense! The people of America are as truly loyal as any subjects the king has, but a people jealous of their liberties, and they will vindicate them."

Neither the eloquence of Colonel Barre, the petitions of the London merchants, nor the remonstrances of the colonies could prevent the passage of the Stamp Act. Of three hundred who voted in the House of Commons, only fifty were against it; in the House of Lords there was not a single dissenting voice, and the royal assent was readily obtained. Anticipating opposition to these measures, Parliament passed laws for sending troops to America, and obliging the inhabitants of those colonies to which they should be sent to furnish them with



COLONEL BARRE.

quarters, and all supplies necessary for carrying on the war successfully.

The Stamp Act was to take effect on the first day of November. The night after its passage Dr. Franklin, then in London as agent for Pennsylvania, wrote to his friend, Charles Thompson, "The sun of liberty is set; you must light up the candles of industry and economy." "Be assured," said Mr. Thompson, in reply, "we shall light up torches of quite another sort."

On the arrival of the Stamp Act the smothered feelings of the colonists

broke forth into one general burst of indignation. The house of burgesses in Virginia were at that time in session. It was here that the first public opposition was made to the odious act; and the man by whom the resolutions, which expressed this opposition, were introduced was the eloquent and ardent Patrick Henry, then a young lawyer and a new member. Of his five celebrated resolutions, the first four asserted the rights and privileges claimed by the colonists; the last declared they were not bound to yield obedience to any law imposing taxes upon them, excepting such as were passed by the general assembly of the colony. These resolutions, more especially the last, were warmly opposed by the house of burgesses; but the bold and irresistible eloquence of Henry finally prevailed, and they were passed by a majority of a single voice.

Exciting Scene Caused by Patrick Henry.

In the heat of the debate, the conduct of the king was, for the first time in any public body in America, arraigned; and Patrick Henry, in this, dared what might have cost him his life. He asserted that the king, in assenting to the law for taxing the colonies, had acted the part of a tyrant; and, alluding to the fate of other tyrants, he exclaimed, "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles I. his Cromwell, and George III."—he was interrupted by the cry of "treason!"—pausing for a moment, he deliberately concluded—"may profit by their example;—if this be treason, make the most of it."

The next day the members were alarmed, on considering the bold stand which they had taken, and in the absence of Henry the fifth resolution was rescinded; but it had already with the others gone forth, and, although at first cautiously circulated, all were at length openly published, and produced violent excitements throughout the country.

Although, on account of the bold opposition to it, the Stamp Act was repealed in 1766, yet the colonists continued a jealous watch over the British government.

In May, 1767, Charles Townshend, then chancellor of the exchequer, influenced by Lord Grenville, brought into Parliament a second plan for taxing America by imposing duties on all tea, glass, paper and painters' colors, which should be imported into the colonies. This bill passed both houses of Parliament without much opposition. And during the same session an act was passed, suspending the authority of the assembly of New York until they should comply with the requisition to quarter troops,

which they had refused; and another, appointing the officers of the navy, as custom-house officers, to enforce the acts of trade and navigation.

These three acts following each other in quick succession, caused, throughout America, a revival of the same feelings which the passage of the Stamp Act had produced. In January, 1768, the assembly of Massa-

chusetts prepared a petition to the king and sent letters to those persons in Great Britain who had been most active in defending the cause of America, again asserting what they considered their rights and claiming deliverance from those unjust and oppressive taxes, which had been imposed by the recent acts of Parliament. They also addressed circulars to the other colonial assemblies, entreating their co-operation in obtaining the redress of their grievances.

In June the custom-house officers seized a sloop belonging to



JOHN HANCOCK.

John Hancock, a merchant of eminence and a patriot much beloved by the people of Boston. They assembled in crowds, insulted and beat the officers, and compelled them to leave the town. Non-importation agreements, with regard to all articles on which duties had been laid, were at this time very extensively adopted.

A report was circulated that troops were ordered to march into Boston. A town meeting was called, and the governor was earnestly entreated to

convoke the assembly. His reply was "that he could not call another assembly this year without further commands from the king.

Orders were given to General Gage, the commander-in-chief of the British troops in the colonies, to station a force in Boston, to overawe the citizens, and protect the custom-house officers in the discharge of their duty. Two regiments were accordingly ordered from Halifax, and escorted by seven armed vessels, they arrived at Boston in September.

Resistance in the Assembly of Massachusetts.

In May the assembly of Massachusetts convened. They refused to proceed with business while the state house was surrounded by an armed force. The governor would not remove it, but adjourned them to Cambridge. Here they expressed their decided belief that the establishment of a standing army in the colony in time of peace, was an invasion of their natural rights. They refused to make any of the appropriations of money which the governor proposed.

In March, 1770, some of the inhabitants of Boston insulted the military, while under arms; and an affray took place, in which four persons were killed. The bells were instantly rung; the people rushed from the country to the aid of the citizens, and the soldiers were obliged to retire to Castle, William, in order to avoid the fury of the enraged multitude. A trial was instituted; the soldiers arraigned were all acquitted, except two, who were found guilty of manslaughter.

In England Lord North was appointed to the ministry. He introduced a bill into Parliament, which passed on the 12th of April, removing the duties which had been laid in 1767, excepting those on tea. But, as had been predicted by those who opposed this partial removal, the people of America were not satisfied, while the system was adhered to and Parliament claimed the *right* of taxing the colonies.

In 1772 meetings were held in the towns throughout Massachusetts, where committees were appointed to maintain a correspondence with each other. These meetings, which proved the nurseries of independence, were censured by Great Britain as being the hot-beds of treason and rebellion. In Rhode Island a daring resistance was made to the custom-house officers; and the "Gaspee," an armed schooner which had been stationed in that colony for the purpose of enforcing the acts of trade was destroyed.

The non-importation associations had, upon the repeal of the duties we

have mentioned, limited their opposition to the use of tea, and the East India Company in England found itself burdened with an enormous stock of tea, which it could not dispose of as usual in consequence of the cessation of sales in America. The company, therefore, proposed to pay *all* the duties on the tea in England and ship it to America at its own risk, hoping that the fact of there being no duty to pay *in America* would induce the colonists to purchase it.

This plan met the determined opposition of the king, who would not consent to relinquish the assertion of his right to tax the Americans. Lord North could not understand that it was not the amount of the tax, but the principle involved in it, that was opposed by the Americans, and he proposed that the East India Company should pay *three-fourths* of the duty in England, leaving the other fourth—about three pence on a pound—to be collected in America. His lordship was told plainly



SAMUEL ADAMS.

that the Americans would not purchase the tea on these conditions, but he answered: "It is to no purpose the making objections, for the king will have it so. The king means to try the question with the Americans."

There were men in America who fully understood that the king meant "to try the question with the Americans," and were willing the trial should come. Samuel Adams was satisfied as to what would be the result, and was diligently working to prepare the people for it. He had the satisfaction of

seeing public opinion in America daily assume a more enlightened and determined condition. A convention of all the colonies for taking action for a common resistance seemed to him a necessity, and he sent forth circulars to the various provinces urging them to assert their rights upon every possible occasion, and to combine for mutual support and protection.

The news of the agreement between the East India Company and the government for the exportation of tea increased the determination of the colonists to resist the tax. It was also resolved that the tea should neither be landed nor sold. A meeting was held in Philadelphia and resolutions were passed requesting those to whom the tea was consigned "to resign their appointments." It was also resolved that whosoever should "aid or abet in unloading, receiving or vending the tea" should be regarded "as an enemy to his country." Meetings of a similar nature were held in New York and Charleston, and similar resolutions were adopted.

Ships from England Loaded with Tea.

A fast-sailing vessel reached Boston about the 1st of November, 1773, with the news that several ships laden with tea had sailed from England to America. On the 3d of November a meeting was held at Faneuil Hall, and, on motion of Samuel Adams, it was unanimously resolved to send the tea back upon its arrival. A man in the crowd cried out: "The only way to get rid of it is to throw it overboard." The meeting invited the consignees of the tea to resign their appointments.

The first of the tea ships reached Boston on the 25th of November, 1773. A meeting of the citizens was held at Faneuil Hall, and it was ordered that the vessel should be moored to the wharf, and a guard of twenty-five citizens was placed over her to see that no tea was removed. The owner of the vessel agreed to send the cargo back if the governor would give his permit for the vessel to leave Boston. This the governor withheld, and in the meantime two other ships arrived with cargoes of tea and were ordered to anchor beside the first. The committee appointed by the meeting of citizens waited on the consignees, but obtained no satisfaction from them.

On the 16th of December another meeting was held. The next day the time allowed by law would expire, and the tea would be placed under the protection of the fort and the armed ships in the harbor. The owner had gone to see the governor, at Milton, to obtain a pass for his vessels,

without which they could not leave the harbor. This the governor refused, on the ground that he had not a proper clearance. He returned to Boston late in the evening and reported the result of his mission to the meeting. Then Samuel Adams arose and gave the signal for the action that had been determined upon by saying: "This meeting can do nothing more to save the country."



THROWING THE TEA OVERBOARD IN BOSTON HARBOR.

Instantly a shout rang through the room, and a band of forty or fifty men "dressed like Mohawk Indians," with their faces blackened to prevent recognition, hastened from the meeting to the wharf where the ships were moored. A guard was posted to prevent the intrusion of spies, and the ships were at once seized. Three hundred and forty-two chests of tea were broken open and their contents poured into the water. The affair was witnessed in silence by a large crowd on the shore. When the destruction of the tea was completed the "Indians" and the crowd dispersed to their homes. Paul Revere was despatched by the patriot leaders to carry the news to New York and Philadelphia.

At New York and Philadelphia the people would not allow the tea to

be landed, and at Charleston it was stored in damp cellars, where the whole cargo was soon ruined. At Annapolis a ship and its cargo were burned, the owner of the vessel himself setting fire to the ship.

The British government was greatly incensed at the refusal of the colonists to allow the tea to be landed, and determined to compel the Americans to submit to the authority of Great Britain. Boston, in particular, was to be made a terrible example to the rest of the colonies. A bill was introduced into Parliament, and passed by a majority of four to one, closing the port of Boston to all commerce, and transferring the seat of government to Salem. The British ministry boasted that with ten thousand regulars they could "march through the continent," and they were resolved to bring America to her knees, and make her confess her fault in dust and humiliation. Lord Howe sought an introduction to Dr. Franklin, through his sister, Mrs. Howe, the friend of the latter, and an honest endeavor was made on both sides to devise some plan to which the parties would consent. But the result of these secret and unofficial negotiations shows clearly that so wide was the difference of opinion in England and America that a war was inevitable.

Drilling Minute-men in the use of Arms.

In the meantime affairs in America were tending to a crisis which would preclude all hope of reconciliation. One Congress had been called by the colonies, and met in Philadelphia. The opposition to the unjust acts of the British government was very emphatic. A second provincial Congress, having assembled in Massachusetts, had ordered military stores to be collected, and encouraged the militia and minute-men to perfect themselves in the use of arms.

The British General Gage, having learned that a number of field-pieces were collected at Salem, dispatched a party of soldiers to take possession of them in the name of the king. The people of Salem assembled in great numbers and, by pulling up a draw-bridge, prevented their entering the town, and thus defeated their object. A large quantity of ammunition and stores was also deposited at Concord, about twenty miles from Boston; these General Gage resolved to seize or destroy, and, with that view, he sent a detachment of 800 men under the command of Colonel Smith and Major Pitcairn, ordering them to proceed with expedition and secrecy.

The Americans had notice of the design, and when the British troops

arrived at Lexington, within five miles of Concord, the militia of the place were drawn up and ready to receive them. The advanced body of the British approached within musket-shot, when Major Pitcairn, riding forward, called to the Americans, "Disperse, you rebels!—throw down your arms and disperse." Not being instantly obeyed, he discharged his pistol, and ordered his men to fire. They fired, and killed eight men. The militia dispersed, but the firing continued.

One of those killed at the Lexington bridge was Isaac Davis, the



DEATH OF CAPTAIN DAVIS AT LEXINGTON BRIDGE.

captain of the minute-men of Acton. He had bidden his young wife a touching good-bye, as he ran to lead his men to the fight. A little later his dead body was brought to her door.

The British troops then proceeded to Concord, and destroyed or took possession of the stores. They then began their retreat; but the colonists pressing upon them on all sides, they went to Lexington, where they met Lord Percy with a reinforcement of 900 men, without which it is doubtful whether they could have reached Boston, for the Americans, better acquainted

with the grounds, continually harassed their march. From every place of concealment—a stone fence, a cluster of bushes, or a barn—the concealed Americans poured upon them a destructive fire. At sunset the British, almost overcome with fatigue, passed Charlestown Neck, and found on Bunker's Hill a resting-place for the night, and the next morning, under the protection of a man-of-war, they entered Boston.

Startling News Alarms the Country.

Blood had now flowed, and no language can portray the feelings which the event excited. Couriers were dispatched in every direction, who gave, as they rode at full speed, their news, to be taken up and carried in like manner to other places; and thus, in an increasing circle, it spread like electric fluid throughout the land. The messenger, if he arrived on Sunday, at once entered the church, and proclaimed to the breathless assembly—war has begun! Everywhere the cry was repeated, “war has begun!” and the universal response was, “to arms, then! liberty or death!”

The legislatures of the several colonies convened, appointed officers, and gave orders to raise troops. Everywhere fathers were leaving their children, and mothers sending their sons to the field; and an army of 20,000 was soon collected in the neighborhood of Boston.

Thus war was beginning in earnest. But our fathers had a righteous cause; and the contest was important, not only to themselves and their posterity, but to human rights. They had done all that was possible, and what none but great men could have done, to secure an honorable peace. What our country now is, and what it must have been, had they shrunk from the conflict, and tamely submitted to the yoke of servitude, speaks for their virtue and wisdom, in resolving to contend. The God of justice, in whom they trusted, proved their deliverer. They were, to the death, true to us, their posterity. Let not us be false to them; but let us transmit the liberty and the noble institutions of our country, the inheritance earned by their blood, uncontaminated, to our descendants.

CHAPTER XIX.

PROGRESS OF THE WAR.

GENERAL GAGE was now closely besieged in Boston by an army of twenty thousand. He had made his fortifications so strong that the Americans did not attempt the place by assault; nor would they have taken any such measures to annoy the enemy as would have exposed the inhabitants. But so closely were the British invested, that, although they had the command of the sea, their provisions became scarce. Great vigilance, to prevent their obtaining supplies, was used along the coast, the inhabitants, for this purpose, often driving their cattle into the interior.

The possession of Ticonderoga and Crown Point, on which depended the command of Lakes George and Champlain, was an object of essential importance. Without waiting for the action of Congress, individuals in Connecticut, at the head of whom were Dean, Wooster, and Parsons, determined to undertake it on their own responsibility; and accordingly they borrowed of the legislature of that colony eighteen hundred dollars.

They then proceeded to Bennington, confident of the co-operation of the hardy freemen who had settled in that vicinity by the authority of New Hampshire, and who had, under the name of the "Green Mountain corps," manifested their resolution in defence of their lands from the sheriffs of New York, that state claiming over them a jurisdiction which they would not allow. At the head of these veterans were Colonels Ethan Allen and Seth Warner. They gladly engaged in the enterprise. Troops were soon raised, and the command was intrusted to Allen.

In the meantime, Benedict Arnold, with the intrepid boldness of his character, had, in Boston, formed and matured the same design, and was on the march to execute it, when he found, with astonishment, that he had been anticipated. Becoming second in command to Allen, they marched together at the head of three hundred men, from Castleton, and reached Lake Champlain, opposite Ticonderoga, on the 9th of May. On the morning of the 10th they embarked with eighty-three men, landed at dawn of day,

and completely surprised the fortress. The approach of a hostile force was so unexpected to De La Place, the commander, that he knew not from what quarter they were; and when summoned to surrender, he demanded by what authority:—"In the name of the great Jehovah and the Continental Congress," said Allen. De La Place, incapable of making any resistance, delivered up the garrison, which consisted of only three officers and forty-four privates.

The remainder of the troops having landed, Colonel Warner was dispatched with a small party against Crown Point, of which he took peaceable possession. Arnold, having manned and armed a small schooner

found in South Bay, captured a sloop-of-war lying at St. John's. The pass of Skeensborough was seized at the same time, by a detachment of volunteers from Connecticut.

Thus were obtained, without bloodshed,



CAPTURE OF TICONDEROGA BY ETHAN ALLEN.

these important posts, and the command of the lakes on which they stood, together with one hundred pieces of cannon, and other munitions of war. The success with which this expedition was crowned, greatly tended to raise the confidence which the Americans felt in themselves. The Continental Congress again assembled at Philadelphia on the 10th of May, and Mr. Hancock was chosen president. Bills of credit to the amount of three millions of dollars were issued for defraying the expenses of the war, and the faith of the "Twelve United Colonies" pledged for their redemption.

Lord Dunmore, the governor of Virginia, on plea of insurrection in a neighboring county, caused some powder to be seized, by night, from the magazine belonging to the colony at Williamsburgh, and conveyed on board an armed schooner, then lying in James River. Patrick Henry



CARPENTER'S HALL--PHILADELPHIA.

In this building assembled the first Continental Congress on Monday, Sept. 5, 1774. Fifty-four delegates were present, representing twelve Colonies.



BATTLE OF BENNINGTON.

assembled an independent company, and was marching towards the capital, to obtain it by force, when he was met by a messenger from the governor, who paid him the full value in money. Henry and his party returned. Lord Dunmore, having fortified his palace, issued a proclamation, and declared them rebels.

This highly incensed the people, with whom Henry was the favorite leader. About the same time, letters of Dunmore to England were intercepted, which were considered as gross slanders against the colony. Thus situated, he became apprehensive of personal danger, abandoned his government, and went on board the *Fowey*, a man-of-war, then lying at Yorktown. In North Carolina, Governor Martin took refuge on board a national ship in Cape Fear River; and in South Carolina, Lord William Campbell abandoned his government, and retired.

Stirring Events Around Boston.

Tryon, the artful and intriguing governor of New York, was still in or near the province, and no delegates to Congress were chosen at the proper time; but after the battle of Lexington a convention was held for the sole purpose, and members were elected. In North Carolina the people of Mecklenburg County having, on the 20th of May, assembled at Charlotte, passed resolutions embodying the bold declaration of Independence—the first made in America.

In May, 1775, the British army in Boston received a powerful reinforcement from England, under Generals Howe, Clinton and Burgoyne. General Gage, thus reinforced, proceeded to bold measures. He proclaimed martial law throughout Massachusetts. He, however, offered pardon to all rebels who would return to their allegiance, except Samuel Adams and John Hancock. General Gage had, in the meantime, agreed to permit the people of Boston to depart; but after a portion had gone he changed his policy, and kept the remainder.

Learning that the British threatened to penetrate into the country, Congress recommended to the council of war to take such measures as would put them on the defensive, and for this purpose a detachment of one thousand men, under Colonel Prescott, was ordered, on the night of the 16th of June, to throw up a breastwork on Bunker's Hill, near Charlestown. By some mistake the troops entrenched themselves on Breed's Hill, nearer to Boston. They labored with such silence and activity that by return of

light they had nearly completed a strong redoubt without being observed. At dawn, however, the British, discovering the advance of the Americans, commenced a severe cannonade from the ships in the river; but this not



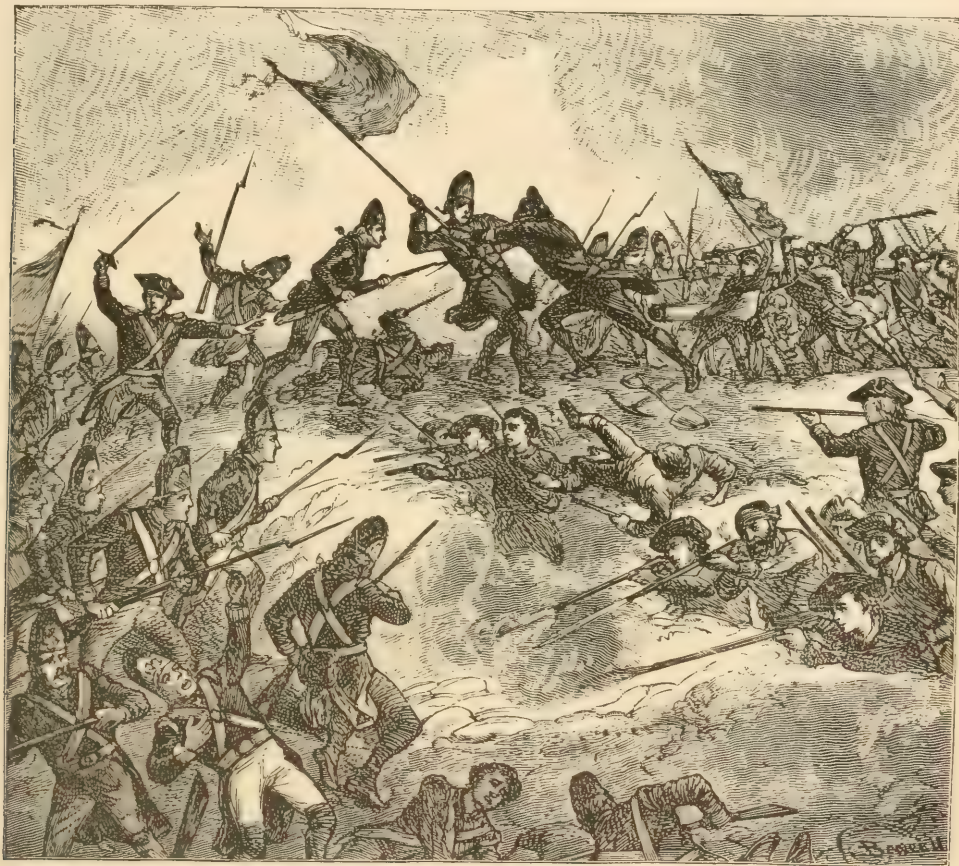
GENERAL BURGoyNE.

interrupting them, General Gage sent a body of nearly 3,000 men, under Generals Howe and Pigot. They left Boston in boats, and landed under the protection of the shipping in Charlestown, at the extreme point of the peninsula, and advanced against the Americans.—Generals Clinton and Burgoyne took their station on an eminence in Boston, commanding a distinct view of the hill. The spires of the churches, the roofs of the houses, and every height which commanded a view of the bat-

tle-ground, were covered with spectators, taking deep and opposite interests in the conflict.

The British set fire to Charlestown, and amidst the glare of its flames glittering upon their burnished arms they advance to the attack. The Americans wait their approach in silence, until they are within ten rods of the redoubt; then, taking a steady aim, and having advantage of the ground, they pour upon the British a deadly fire. They are thrown into

confusion, and many of their officers fall. They are thus twice repulsed. Clinton now arrives; his men again rally, advance towards the fortifications, and attack the redoubt on three sides at once. The ammunition of the colonists failed. Courage was no longer of any avail, and Colonel Prescott, who commanded the redoubt, ordered a retreat. The Americans were obliged to pass Charlestown Neck, where they were exposed to a galling fire from



BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL.

the ships in the harbor. Here fell General Joseph Warren, whose death was a severe blow to his mourning country.

In this engagement three thousand men, composing the flower of the British army, were engaged. Their killed and wounded were more than a thousand, while the loss of the Americans was less than half that number. Although the ground was lost, the Americans regarded this as a victory, and the British as a defeat. Or, if they pretended otherwise, it was tauntingly asked, how many more such triumphs their army could afford?

The boldness with which the undisciplined troops of the colonies so long withstood the charges of the regulars increased their confidence, and convinced the English that they had to contend with a resolute foe.

On the fifteenth of June Congress, still in session, elected, by a unanimous vote, George Washington, who was then present, and had, from their first meeting at Philadelphia, been a delegate from Virginia, to the high office of general and commander-in-chief of the army of the United Colonies. He declined all compensation for his services, for as money could not buy him from his endeared home, and as he served his country for justice, and the love he bore to her cause, he would not allow his motives to be misconstrued. He should keep an exact account of his expenses, and those Congress, he doubted not, would discharge.

The British Army Harrassed by Washington.

Artemas Ward, of Massachusetts; Colonel Lee, formerly a British officer; Philip Schuyler, of New York, and Israel Putnam, of Connecticut, then before Boston, were at the same time appointed to the rank of major-generals; and Horatio Gates to that of adjutant-general. Soon after his election Washington set out for the camp at Cambridge. He found the British army strongly posted on Bunker's and Breed's Hill, and Boston Neck. The American, consisting of 14,000 men, were entrenched on the heights around Boston, forming a line which extended from Roxbury on the right, to the river Mystic on the left, a distance of twelve miles. This disposition of the troops greatly distressed the British, who were confined to Boston, and often obliged to risk their lives to obtain the means of sustenance.

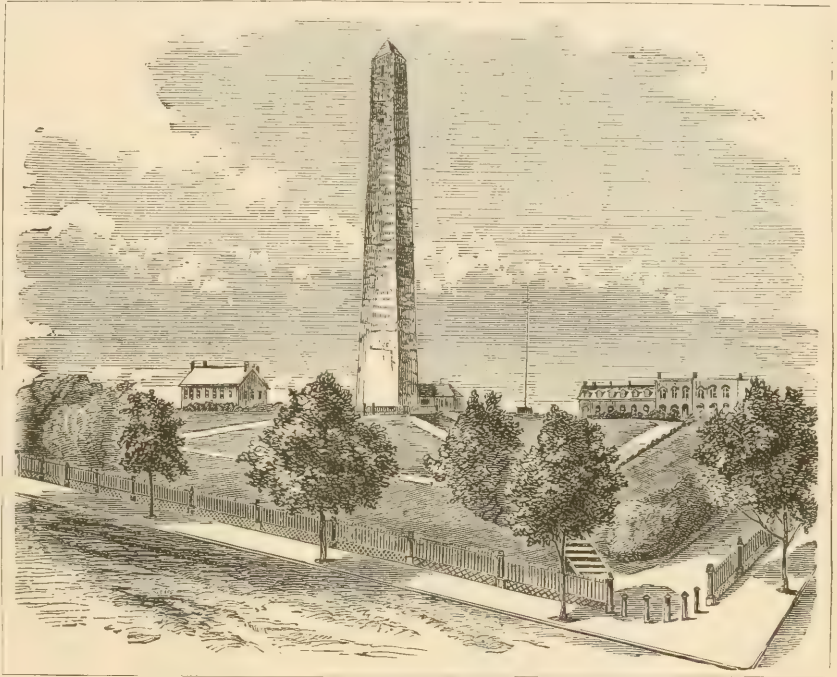
Georgia now entered into the opposition made to the claims of the British Parliament to tax America, and chose delegates to Congress; after which the style of "the Thirteen United Colonies" was assumed, and by that title the English provinces were thenceforth designated.

During this session of Congress also the first line of posts for the communication of intelligence through the United States was established. Benjamin Franklin was appointed, by a unanimous vote, postmaster-general, with power to appoint as many deputies as he might deem proper and necessary for the conveyance of the mail from Falmouth, in Maine, to Savannah, in Georgia.

While the British army was closely blockaded in Boston, congress conceived the design of sending a force into Canada; as the movements of

Sir Guy Carleton, the governor of that province, seemed to threaten an invasion of the northwestern frontier. Two expeditions were accordingly organized and dispatched, one by the way of Champlain, under Generals Schuyler and Montgomery, the other by the way of the river Kennebec, under the command of Arnold. General Lee, with twelve hundred volunteers from Connecticut, was directed to repair to New York, and with the aid of the inhabitants, fortify the city, and the highlands on the Hudson River.

In pursuance of the plan of guarding the northern frontier by taking Canada, Generals Montgomery and Schuyler with two regiments of New York militia, and a body of men from New England, amounting in the whole to



BUNKER HILL MONUMENT, ERECTED IN 1825.

about two thousand, were ordered to move in that direction, while General Montgomery was directed to proceed with the troops then in readiness and lay siege to St. John's.

Colonel Allen, the hero of Ticonderoga, had a command under Montgomery; and was sent by him with about eighty men to secure a party of hostile Indians. Having effected his object, he was returning to headquarters, when he was met by Major Brown, who, with a party, had been detached on a tour of observation. Without orders they rashly undertook to make a descent upon Montreal. They divided into two parties, intending to assail the city at opposite points. Allen crossed the river in the night, as had been proposed; and although Brown and his party failed, he, with only eighty men, by desperate valor attempted to maintain his ground though attacked by Carleton, at the head of several hundreds.

Compelled to yield he and his brave associates were loaded with irons and sent to England.

On the 13th of October a small fort at Chamble, which was but slightly guarded, was taken by the Americans. Several pieces of artillery, and about one hundred and twenty barrels of gunpowder, were the fruits of the victory. This enabled Montgomery to proceed with vigor against St. John's. Carleton, on learning the situation of that fort, raised a force of eight hundred men for its relief, and embarked them in boats to cross the St. Lawrence to Longueil. Colonel Warner, who was stationed there with three hundred mountaineers, and a small piece of artillery, received him with a brisk fire; prevented his landing, and compelled him to return to Montreal.

When the news of this repulse reached Montgomery, he sent a flag to Major Preston, who commanded the besieged fortress, summoning him to surrender. The summons was obeyed on the 3d of November, and the fort entered by the Americans.

Escaped Down the River in the Night.

Carleton now abandoned Montreal to its fate, and made his escape down the river in the night, in a small canoe with muffled oars. The next day, Montgomery, after engaging to allow the inhabitants their own laws, the free exercise of their religion, and the privilege of governing themselves, entered the town. His benevolent conduct induced many Canadians to join his standard: yet some of his own troops deserted, from severity of climate, and many, whose time of enlistment had nearly expired, insisted on returning home. With the remnant of his army, consisting of only three hundred men, he marched towards Quebec, expecting to meet there troops under Arnold, who were to penetrate by the way of the rivers Kenebec and Chaudiere.

Arnold commenced his march with one thousand men about the middle of September. After sustaining almost incredible hardships in the trackless forests of Maine, he arrived at Point Levi, opposite Quebec, on the 9th of November. On the night of the 13th he crossed the St. Lawrence, and climbing the same precipice which Wolfe had ascended, he formed his army, now reduced to seven hundred men, on the heights near the memorable plains of Abraham, and advanced in the hope of surprising the city. Being convinced, by a cannon shot from the wall, that the gar-

risson had obtained knowledge of his approach, and were ready to receive him, and feeling his force to be insufficient, either to carry on a regular siege, or hazard a battle, he retired on the 18th, to Point aux Trembles, there to await the arrival of Montgomery.

Spirited Attack upon Quebec.

General Carleton, on retiring from Montreal, had proceeded to Quebec, and now had a garrison of 1500 men. Montgomery joined Arnold on the 1st of December. The united forces of the Americans amounted to less than 1000 effective men. On the 5th Montgomery sent a flag to the governor, with a summons to surrender. Carleton ordered his troops to fire upon the bearer, and forbade all communication. The American general attempted to batter the walls and harass the city by repeated attacks. During one night he constructed a battery of ice, where he planted his cannon; but they were not of sufficient force to make any material impression, or to alarm the garrison.

Montgomery now found himself under circumstances even more critical and embarrassing than those which had sixteen years before environed Wolfe at the same place. The severe Canadian winter had set in, and several feet of snow covered the ground, and his troops had suffered much already. Yet to abandon the enterprise was to relinquish fame and disappoint the expectations, however unreasonable they might be, of his too sanguine countrymen. He, therefore, with the unanimous approbation of his officers, came to the desperate determination of storming the city.

Just at the dawn of the last day of the year, and during a violent snow storm, the troops marched from the camp, in four divisions, commanded by Montgomery, Arnold, Brown, and Livingston. The two latter were to make feigned attacks; but, impeded by the snow, they did not arrive in season to execute their orders. Arnold and Montgomery were to make an assault at opposite points. Montgomery, at the head of his valiant band, was obliged to advance through a narrow path, leading under the projecting rocks of a precipice.

When they reached a block-house and picket he assisted with his own hands to open a passage for his troops, encouraging, by his voice and his example, his brave companions. They advanced boldly and rapidly to force the barrier, when a single and accidental discharge from a cannon, proved fatal to this brave and excellent officer, and thus destroyed the hopes of the

enterprise. Several of Montgomery's best officers shared his fate; and Colonel Campbell, on whom the command devolved, found it impossible to pursue the advantages already gained.

In the meantime, Arnold, at the head of his detachment, was intrepidly advancing, when he received a musket ball in the leg, and was carried from the field. Colonel Morgan, who succeeded him, led on the troops with vigor, and soon made himself master of the second barrier. But the British, freed from their apprehension of attack at any other point, turned their undivided force upon his party. Three hours did this resolute band resist, although attacked both in front and in rear; but at length were compelled to surrender themselves prisoners of war. The Americans lost 400 men in this disastrous attempt.

The treatment of Carleton to his prisoners did honor to his humanity. Arnold, wounded as he was, retired with the remainder of his army, to the distance of three miles below Quebec, where, though inferior in numbers to the garrison, they kept the place in a state of blockade, and, in the course of the winter, reduced it to distress for want of provisions.

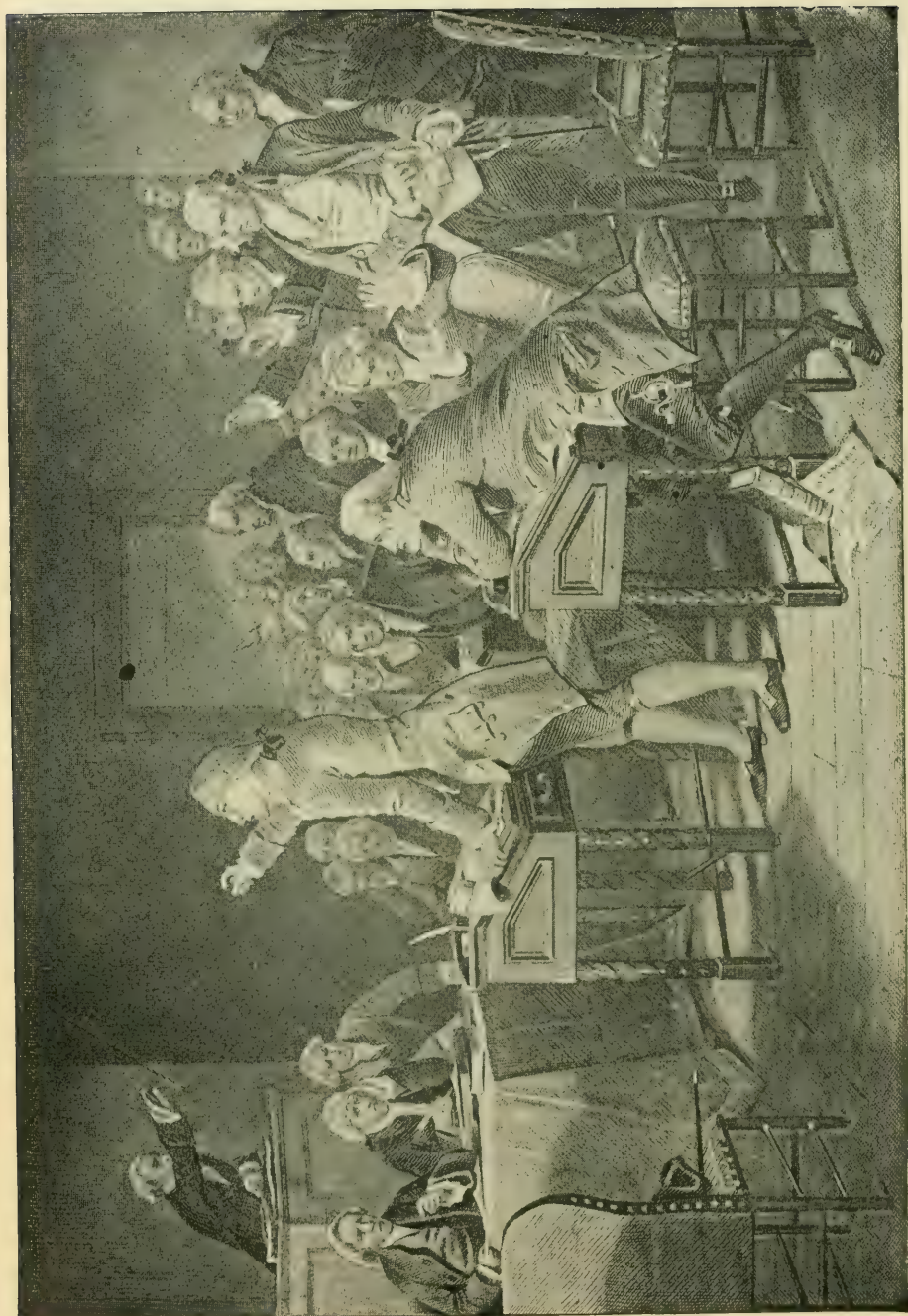
Recruiting the American Army.

Although Britain was preparing a formidable force, yet the American army was not only reduced in numbers, but, at the close of the year 1775, was almost destitute of necessary supplies. The terms of enlistment of all the troops had expired in December, and, although measures had been taken for recruiting the army, yet on the last day of December, there were but 9,650 men enlisted for the ensuing year. General Washington, finding how slowly the army was recruiting, proposed to Congress to try the influence of a bounty; but his proposal was not acceded to until late in January, and it was not until the middle of February, that the regular army amounted to 14,000. In addition to these, the commander-in-chief, being vested by Congress with the power to call out the militia, made a requisition on the authorities of Massachusetts for 6,000, which were furnished.

Washington had continued the blockade of Boston during the winter of 1775-6, and at last resolved to bring the enemy to action, or drive them from the town. On the night of the 4th of March, a detachment, under the command of General Thomas, silently reached Dorchester Heights, and there constructed, in a single night, a redoubt, which menaced the British



Henry



PATRICK HENRY ADDRESSING THE VIRGINIA CONVENTION

shipping with destruction. When the light of the morning discovered to General Howe the advantage the Americans had gained, he perceived that no alternative remained for him but to dislodge them, or evacuate the place. He immediately dispatched a few regiments to attempt the former, but a violent tempest of wind and rain rendered their efforts ineffectual.

The Americans had, however, continued with unremitting industry, to strengthen and improve their works, until they were now too dangerous to be neglected, and too secure to be forced, and it was determined, in a council of war, to evacuate the town. Accordingly, on the morning of the 17th, the whole British force, with such of the loyalists as chose to follow their fortunes, set sail for Halifax. As the rear of the British troops were embarking, the forces of Washington entered the town in triumph.

The British fleet, destined to the reduction of the southern colonies, sailed, under Sir Peter Parker, to attack Charleston, where they arrived early in June, 1776. The marines were commanded by General Clinton. An intercepted letter had given the Carolinians such information of the enemy's movements, that they were not unprepared for their reception. On Sullivan's Island, at the entrance of Charleston harbor, they had constructed a fort of the palmetto tree, which resembles the cork. The militia had been called out, under the command of General Lee, now exceedingly popular; and they formed a force five or six thousand strong, for the defence of the menaced capital. The general was ably seconded by Colonels Gadsden, Moultrie, and Thompson.

The palmetto fort was garrisoned by about 400 men, commanded by Colonel Moultrie. On the morning of the 28th of June, the British ships opened their broadsides upon it. The discharge of artillery upon the little



MEDAL STRUCK BY CONGRESS IN HONOR OF THE
RECAPTURE OF BOSTON.

fort was incessant, but the balls were received by the palmetto wood, and buried as in earth; while Moultrie, and the brave Carolinians under his



SERGEANT JASPER AT FORT MOULTRIE.

command, returned the fire, and defended the fortification with such spirit, that it has ever since been called by the name of Moultrie.

Once during the day, after a thundering discharge from the British cannon, the flag of the fort was no longer seen to wave; and the Americans, who watched the battle from the opposite shore, were, every moment, expecting to see the British troops mount the parapets in triumph. But none appeared, and, in a few moments, the striped banner of America was once more unfurled to their view. The staff had been carried away by a

shot, and the flag had fallen upon the outside of the fort. A brave sergeant, by the name of Jasper, jumped over the wall, and, amidst a shower of bullets, recovered and fastened it in its place. At evening, the British, completely foiled, drew off their ships, with the loss of two hundred men; and, a few days after, they set sail, with the troops on board, for the vicinity of New York, where the whole British force had been ordered to assemble.


It had early occurred to Washington, that the central situation of New York, with the numerous advantages attending the possession of that city, would render it an object of great importance to the British. Under this impression, before the enemy left Boston, General Lee had been detached from Cambridge, to put Long Island and New York in a state of defense. Soon after the evacuation of Boston, the commander-in-chief followed, and, with the greater part of his army, fixed his headquarters in the city of New York.

Washington showed how well he deserved the confidence reposed in him, by making every exertion to increase his army, which, enfeebled as it was when he commenced his march, had hourly diminished. His troops were unfed amidst fatigue; unshod, while their bleeding feet were forced rapidly over the sharp projections of frozen ground. In such a situation, the wonder is not, that many died and many deserted, but that enough remained to keep up the show of opposition.

In this distressing situation, Washington manifested to his troops all the firmness of the commander, while he showed all the tenderness of the father. He visited the sick, paid every attention in his power to the wants of the army, praised their constancy, represented their sufferings to Congress, and encouraged their despairing minds, by holding out the prospects of a better future; while the serene and benignant countenance with which he covered his aching heart, made them believe that their beloved and sagacious commander was himself animated with the prospects which he portrayed to them.

CHAPTER XX.

THE AMERICANS RESOLVED TO BE FREE.

N the 7th of June, 1776, Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, made a motion in Congress for declaring the colonies free and independent States. The most vigorous exertions had been made by the friends of independence to prepare the minds of the people for this bold measure. Among the numerous writers on the momentous question, the most luminous and forcible was Thomas Paine. His pamphlet, entitled "Common sense," was read and understood by all. While it demonstrated the necessity, the advantage, and the practicability of independence, it treated kingly government and hereditary succession with ridicule and opprobrium. Two years before, the inhabitants of the colonies were the loyal subjects of the king of England, and wished, not for independence, but for the constitutional liberty of the British subject.

But the crown of England had, for their assertion of this right, declared them out of its protection, rejected their petitions, shackled their commerce, and finally employed foreign mercenaries to destroy them. Such were the exciting causes which, being stirred up and directed by the master-spirits of the times, had, in the space of two years, changed the tide of public feeling in America, and throughout her extensive regions produced the general voice—We will be free.

Satisfied, by indubitable signs, that such was the resolution of the people, Congress deliberately and solemnly decided to declare it to the world; and the DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE was agreed to in Congress on the 4th of July, 1776. Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman and R. R. Livingston had been appointed, on the 11th of June, to prepare a Declaration of Independence. It was agreed by this committee that each one should make such a draft as his judgment and feelings should dictate; and that, upon comparing them together, the one should be chosen as the report of the committee which should prove most conformable to the wishes of the whole. Mr. Jefferson's paper was the first read, and every member of the committee determined, spontaneously, to

suppress his own production, observing that it was unworthy to bear a competition with that which they had just heard.

John Pinn John Hancock John Hart
 Wm. Paine
 Geo. Read Wm. Hooper Saml. Adams
 Geo. Clymer
 Stephen Morris The Nelsons
 Charles Carroll of Carrolltown Bridge Gerry
 Tho. M. Kear Roger Sherman Saml. Huntington
 Wm. Whipple Wm. Thomas Lynch Lieut.
 Geo. Taylor Josiah Bartlett Benj. Franklin
 Wm. Williams Richd. Stockton
 Oliver Wolcott Jno. Witherspoon John Morton
 Tho. Stone Samuel Chas. Root Great Paine
 George Wythe Matthew Thornton
 Fran. Lewis Wm. Jefferson Benj. Harrison
 Lewis Morris Abra. Clark John Livingston
 Arthur Middleton Jas. Hopkinson
 Geo. Walton Carter Braxton James Wilson
 Richard Henry Lee John Weyward Junr.
 Benjamin Rush John Adams Robt. Morris
 Symon Hall Joseph Hewes Button Gwinnett
 Francis Lightfoot Lee
 William Ellery Edward Rutledge Jas. Smith

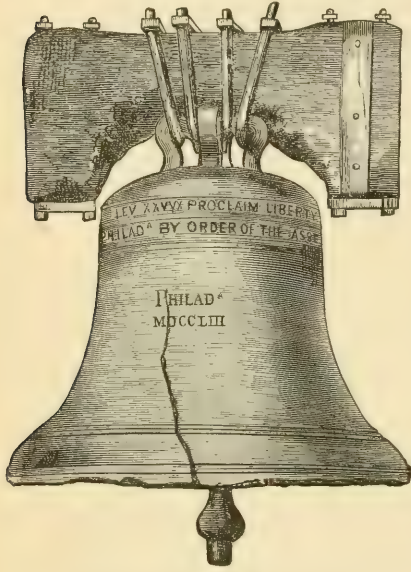
THE SIGNERS OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

A long enumeration of the oppressions of the British government is therein made, and closed with the assertion that "a prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people."

The signing of this declaration by the American Congress was a momentous procedure. That firm band of patriots well knew that, in affixing their signatures, they were, in the eyes of England, committing the very act of treason and rebellion; and that, in case of her ultimate success, it was their own death-warrant which they signed. Their countrymen felt that there was now no receding from the contest, without devoting to death these their political fathers, who had thus fearlessly made themselves the organs of declaring what was equally the determination of all.

Thus it was now the general feeling that the die was cast, and nothing remained but—"liberty or death!"

Congress was in session in the hall of the State House in Philadelphia when the Declaration of Independence was adopted. In the spire of this venerable building hung a bell, inscribed with the words of Scripture: "Proclaim liberty throughout all the land unto all the inhabitants thereof." On the morning of the fourth of July vast crowds assembled around the building, as it was known that Congress would on that day take definite action upon the declaration. The bell-ringer stationed himself in the tower, ready to proclaim the good news the moment it should be announced to



OLD INDEPENDENCE BELL.

him, and had posted his little son at the door of the hall to await the signal of the door-keeper.

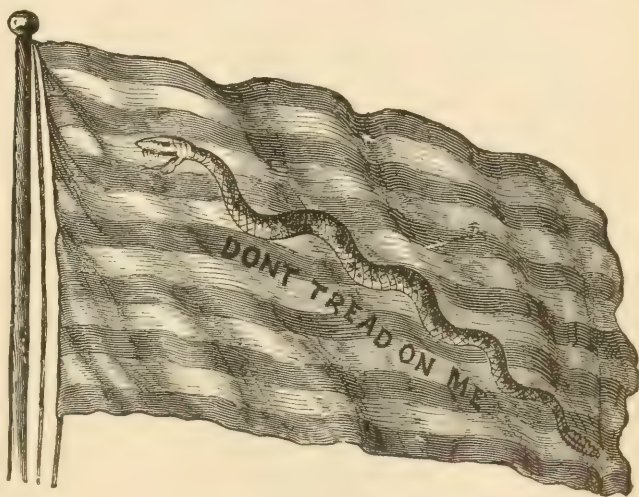
When the announcement of the vote was made the door-keeper gave the signal and the boy ran quickly to the tower. The old man heard him coming, and clutched the bell-rope with a firm grasp. The next instant the glad cry of the boy's voice was heard. "Ring! ring!" he cried, and then the deep, sonorous tones of the bell went rolling out of the tower, and were answered with a mighty shout from the assembled throng without. The declaration was received by all the States and by the army with enthusiasm.

There is a common impression that the old Liberty Bell was cracked on the day it rang out liberty for the American people. This, however, is a mistake. The bell was cracked in 1835, while tolling for Chief Justice Marshall. It is the one sacred relic of the nation, is an object of great

interest to all Americans, and is always regarded with a feeling somewhat akin to veneration.

The thirteen united colonies were now the thirteen United States. It should not be forgotten that the declaration did not make the colonies independent states, or states in any sense. It was simply their announcement to the world that they had, each for itself, by the exercise of its own sovereign power, assumed the independence which rightfully belonged to it.

The Declaration of Independence put an end to all the hopes that had been cherished of an accommodation with Great Britain, and caused those who were still wavering to embrace the cause of their country. It relieved Congress of the disadvantage under which it had hitherto acted, and enabled it to pursue a more vigorous and decisive policy in prosecution of the war. There was no retreat now; nothing remained but to continue the struggle until Great Britain should be compelled to acknowledge the independence of the states, or they should be reduced to the condition of conquered provinces.



RATTLESNAKE FLAG.

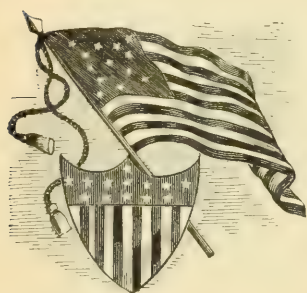
Soldiers must have a flag under which to fight. The first one hoisted over the American troops in Boston contained thirteen stripes like the Star Spangled Banner, but instead of the white stars in a blue field, it had a union of the crosses of Saint Andrew and Saint George. It is not certain that the Americans had any flag at the Battle of Bunker Hill, though there is a tradition that one floated over Prescott's redoubt with the words, "Come if you Dare."

Gadsen, of South Carolina, on the 10th of February, presented the Colonial Assembly with a flag of the American navy, showing a rattlesnake with thirteen rattles, and the motto, "Don't tread on me." There were other variations, but the first recognized Continental standard was the one that Washington raised on the 2d of January, 1776. By resolution of Congress, June 14, 1777, this was replaced by the flag just as it is to-day, excepting that it then had only thirteen stars. Whenever a new state is admitted to

the Union another star is added to the constellation of the flag on the 4th of July following its admission.

The troops from Halifax, under the command of General Howe, after touching at Sandy Hook, took possession of Staten Island on the 2d of July; and those from England, commanded by Admiral Howe, landed at the same place on the 12th. About the same time Clinton arrived with the troops which he had reconducted from the expedition against Charleston; and Commodore Hotham, with the expected reinforcements from England. These, with several Hessian regiments which were daily expected, and which had been hired by Great Britain, would make up an army of 35,000 of the best troops of Europe.

The American army occupied New York and its vicinity. Two detachments guarded Governor's Island and Paulus Hook. The militia, under the American Clinton, were stationed at East and West Chester, and New Rochelle, to prevent the British landing in force on the north shore, penetrating to Kingsbridge, and thus inclosing the Americans in the island. A still larger portion of the army was placed by Washington on Brooklyn Heights, in a fortified camp, extending from Wallabout Bay to Gowanus' Cove, of which the command was given to Greene.

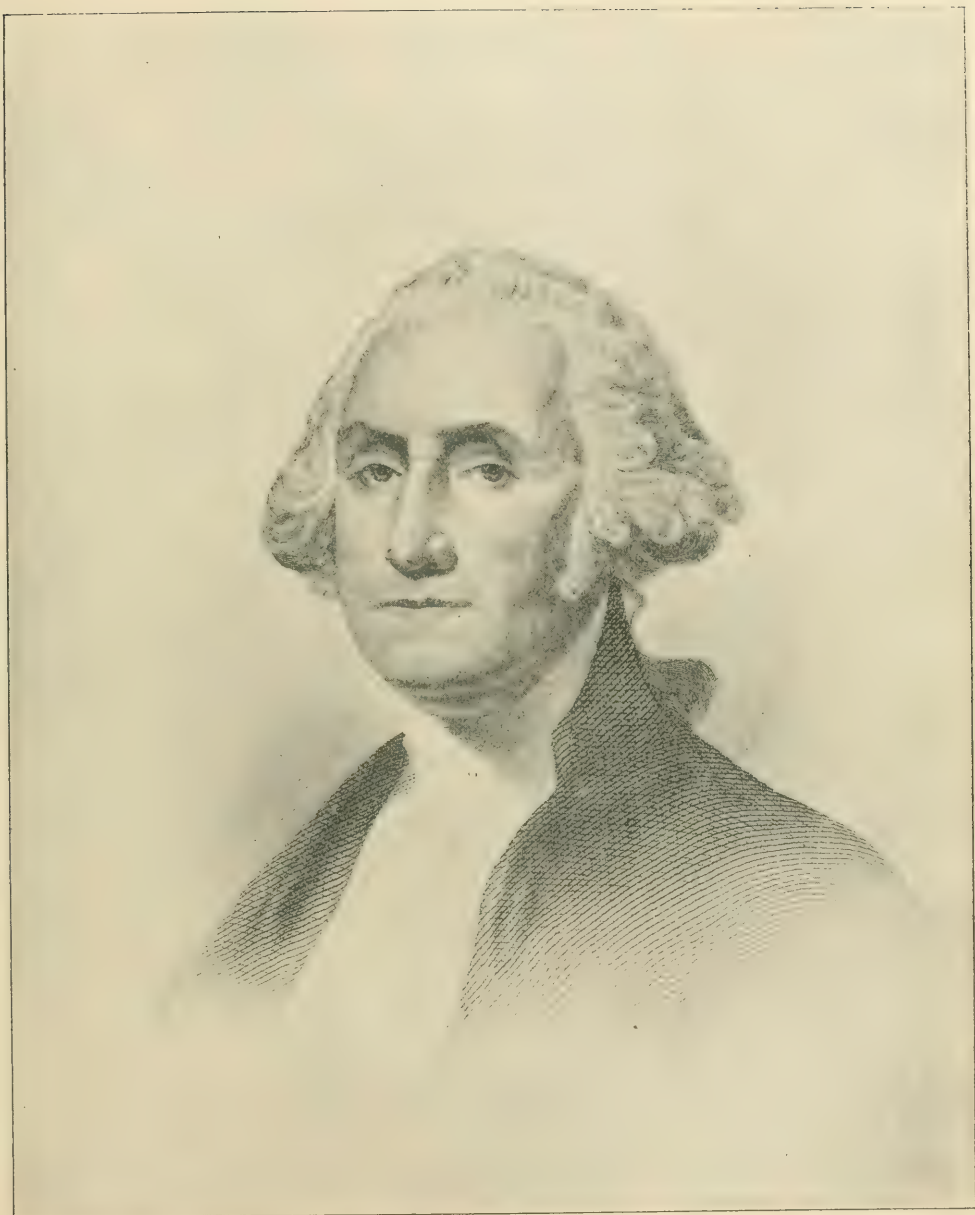


FLAG AND SHIELD.

This able officer, daily visited by his commander, carefully strengthened his fortifications and made himself acquainted with every defile by which they might be approached. Unhappily he was smitten with fever, and four days before the battle of Brooklyn, Putnam received the command. Sterling and Sullivan appear to have acted under him.

On the 22d of August the English landed without opposition on Long Island, between the villages of New Utrecht and Gravesend. They extended themselves to Flatlands, distant four miles from the Americans, and separated from them by a range of wood-covered hills, called the heights of Gowanus, which, running to the northeast, there divide the island.

About midnight of the 26th Howe sent General Grant to attack the Americans from the left, thus inducing the belief that against this post the main strength of the British would be directed. Here he was met and bravely fought by General Sterling, with a detachment from the American camp. At daybreak on the 27th the Hessians, under General de Heister,



Geo Washington



PUTNAM'S ESCAPE AT HORSE NECK

attacked from the centre, and General Sullivan, who commanded the forces in front of the American camp, led them to repel the assailants; little thinking that their attack was merely a stratagem to divert his attention from the real point of danger. The ships also made much noise by a show of cannon-ading.

Colonel Miles was sent by the Americans to guard the Jamaica pass, and reconnoitre the movements of the enemy. This service, as events proved, was the most important, and the worst performed of any on the side of the Americans. It was here that the British generals made their grand effort, and here that the Americans suffered a fatal surprise. The right wing of the English, which was the most numerous, and entirely composed of select troops, was commanded by General Clinton; and before Miles perceived their approach, they had obtained possession of the Jamaica pass, upon the heights. Generals Percy and Cornwallis followed with the main army. Scouts sent out by Sullivan were captured; and he was thus left in ignorance of the enemy's approach, until his flank was attacked by their infantry.



AMERICAN MARKSMAN IN A TREE.

He instantly ordered a retreat; but he was intercepted by the English, who now attacked him in the rear and compelled his troops to throw themselves into the neighboring woods. There they were met by the Hessians, who drove them back upon the English. Signal guns here informed Grant and de Heister, and they made earnest their feigned attack. The distressed Americans were alternately chased and intercepted, until, at length, several regiments cut their way, with desperate valor, through the midst of the enemy, and gained the camp of Putnam; but a great part of the detachments were killed or taken prisoners. The loss of the Americans was variously estimated from one to four thousand. The British lost, in killed and wounded, three hundred and sixty-seven.

Great Disaster to the Patriot Army.

In the height of the engagement General Washington crossed to Brooklyn from New York. He saw his best troops slaughtered or taken prisoners, and with a glance which searched the future, he viewed in its consequences the terrible magnitude of the disaster, and he uttered an exclamation of anguish. But his prudence and wisdom remained unshaken. He might, at this moment, have drawn all his troops from the encampment; and also called over all the forces in New York to take part in the conflict; but he could have no reasonable hope of recovering the battle; and, with true heroism, he "preserved himself and his army for a happier future."

On the night of the 29th, Washington, by advice of a council of his officers, and aided by a dense fog, withdrew the remainder of his troops from Brooklyn to New York; to which place the detachment from Governor's Island also retired. Finding that it would be impossible to defend the city he removed his forces to the heights of Harlem.

About this time Captain Hale, a highly interesting young officer from Connecticut, learning that Washington wished to ascertain the state of the British Army on Long Island, undertook the dangerous service of a spy. He entered the British army in disguise, and obtained the desired information; but being apprehended in his attempt to return, he was carried before Sir William Howe, and by his orders was executed the next morning. This was the work of the infamous Cunningham, by whom many prisoners were inhumanly executed. Hale was refused a clergyman, and even a Bible, and letters which he wrote to his mother and sisters were destroyed. At the

place of execution he exclaimed, "I lament that I have but one life to lay down for my country."

On the 15th of September the British army entered and took possession of the city of New York. A few days after a fire broke out, which consumed nearly one-fourth part of the buildings. It was said that the fire was discovered in many different places at once; and hence some have supposed that it was fired by the citizens, as Moscow, when threatened by Napoleon, was burned, to deprive its enemies of its hospitable shelter.

On the 16th of September, the day after the British took possession of New York, a considerable body of their troops appeared in the plain between the two armies. Washington ordered Colonel Knowlton and Major Leech, with a detachment, to get in their rear, while he amused them with preparations to attack them in front. The plan succeeded; and although the brave Knowlton was killed, the rencontre was favorable to the Americans, as it served, in some degree, to restore that confidence in themselves which their preceding misfortunes had destroyed.

Gallant Defence of Fort Washington.

General Howe next turned his attention towards the forts, Washington and Lee. They had been garrisoned, with the hope of preserving the command of the Hudson River, but the British had already, on two occasions, sent their ships past them. General Washington, foreseeing their danger, had written to General Greene, who commanded in that quarter, that if he should find Fort Washington not in a situation to sustain an assault, to cause it instantly to be evacuated. General Greene, believing it might be maintained, left it under the command of the brave Colonel Magaw, with a force of 2700 men.

On the 16th of November the British attacked the fort in four different quarters. The Americans repelled them with such spirit that in the course of the day about 1200 of the assailants were killed or wounded. At length the Americans were forced to capitulate; but not without securing to themselves honorable terms. The prisoners taken by the British at this time amounted to about 2000, a greater number than had, on any previous occasion, fallen into their hands, and a most disastrous loss to their country.

The British army immediately crossed the Hudson to attack Fort Lee; but the garrison, apprised of their approach, evacuated the fort, and, under the guidance of General Greene, joined the main army now at Newark.

The acquisition of these two forts and the diminution of the American army, by the departure of those soldiers whose term of service had expired, encouraged the British to hope that they should be able to annihilate with ease the remaining force of the republicans.

Washington, still undismayed, pursued the policy of avoiding an engagement, as the only hope of preserving his little army, which, at this time, amounted to only three thousand. Finding himself, in the post which he had taken at Newark, too near his triumphant foe, he removed to Brunswick. The same day Cornwallis, with a part of the British army, entered Newark. Washington again retreated from Brunswick to Princeton, and thence to Trenton. The British still pursuing, he finally crossed the Delaware into Pennsylvania.

The British general, not choosing to take the trouble of constructing flat-bottomed boats, for carrying over his troops, and the Americans having been careful not to leave theirs for his accommodation, he arranged his German troops, to the number of 4,000, along the Delaware, from Mount Holly to Trenton; placed a strong detachment at Princeton; stationed his main army at New Brunswick, and retired himself to New York, to wait for the river to freeze, that thus he might be furnished with a convenient bridge; not doubting, as it would seem, that the Americans would quietly wait until he was ready to pass over and destroy them.

A Bold Move against the British.

Washington now determined to recross the Delaware, and attack the Hessians at different points. A force of twenty-four hundred picked troops, under his own command, was to cross the river a few miles above Trenton, and attack the enemy at that place; and the same time another detachment, under Reed and Cadwallader, were to cross over from Bristol, and drive the Hessians, under Colonel Donop, out of Burlington. These attacks were to be simultaneous, and were ordered to be made at five o'clock, on the morning of the 26th of December.

The division of Washington was accompanied by a train of twenty-four field-pieces, under Colonel Knox. The river was high and full of floating ice, and the weather was cold and stormy. A detachment of boats had been collected for the service, and was manned by Colonel Glover's regiment of Marblehead fishermen, who had ferried the army over the East River, in the retreat from Long Island. The march was begun just after



WASHINGTON CROSSING THE DELAWARE.

dark on Christmas night, and Washington hoped to reach the New Jersey shore by midnight; but the passage of the river was difficult and tedious, by reason of the floating ice and the high wind, which repeatedly swept the boats out of their course, and it was four o'clock before the artillery was landed. The march was at once resumed. Washington, with the main body, moved by a wide circuit to gain the north of the town, while a detachment, under Sullivan, was ordered to advance by the river road, and attack the enemy from the west and south sides.

The Enemy Taken by Surprise and Routed.

A blinding storm of hail and snow delayed the advance of the troops, but also concealed their movements from the enemy; and it was eight o'clock before Trenton was reached. The attack was at once begun, and was pressed with vigor. The Hessians were completely taken by surprise; they flew to arms promptly, but by this time the Americans had gained the main street, and were sweeping it with a battery of six pieces. Colonel Rahl was mortally wounded while leading his grenadiers to the charge, and his men, seized with a panic, endeavored to retreat. Finding that they were surrounded, about one thousand of them threw down their arms, and surrendered. The remainder succeeded in escaping, and joining Colonel Donop at Burlington.

Two days after the action, Washington crossed his whole army over the Delaware, and took quarters at Trenton. Howe was thunderstruck by this astonishing reverse. Lord Cornwallis was in New York, on the point of embarking for England; but the commander ordered him instantly to New Jersey, where he joined the British forces, now assembled at Princeton. Leaving a part of his troops at this place, he immediately proceeded towards Trenton, with the intention of giving battle to the Americans, and arrived, with his vanguard, on the 1st of January.

Washington, knowing the inferiority of his force, sensible, too, that flight would be almost as fatal as defeat, conceived the project of marching to Princeton, and attacking the troops left in that place. About midnight, leaving his fires burning briskly, that his army should not be missed, he silently decamped, and gained, by a circuitous route, the rear of the enemy. At sunrise, the van of the American forces met, unexpectedly, two British regiments, which were on the march to join Cornwallis.

A conflict ensued: the Americans gave way:—all was at stake: Wash-

ington himself, at this decisive moment, led the main body. The enemy were routed, and fled. Washington pressed forward towards Princeton, where one regiment of the enemy yet remained. A part of these saved themselves by flight; the remainder, about three hundred in number, were made prisoners. The number killed on the side of the British was upwards of one hundred; that of the Americans was less; but among them was the excellent General Mercer, with several other valuable officers.

Thrilling were the emotions with which these successes were hailed by a disheartened nation. Even to this day, when an unexpected and thrilling event is to be related, the speaker, who perchance knows not the origin of the proverb, joyfully exclaims, "Great news from the Jerseys!"

Continued Successes of the Revolutionists.

On hearing the cannonade from Princeton, Cornwallis, apprehensive for the safety of his Brunswick stores, immediately put his army in motion for that place. Washington, on his approach, retired to Morristown. When somewhat refreshed he again took the field; and having gained possession of Newark, Woodbridge, Elizabethtown, and indeed of all the enemy's posts in New Jersey, except New Brunswick and Amboy, he retired to secure winter quarters at Morristown.

Washington's military glory now rose to its meridian. Indeed, nothing in the history of war shows a leader in a more advantageous point of light than the last events of this campaign did the commanding general. Where can we find a passage in the life of Hannibal, of Julius Cæsar, or Napoleon, in which the soldier's fearless daring and contempt of personal danger more strikingly blends with the commander's fertility of resource, promptness to decide and act, vigor to follow up success, and moderation to stop at the precise point between bravery and rashness? But Hannibal made war for revenge; Cæsar and Napoleon, for personal ambition; Washington for justice, for the rights of his country and of mankind.

On the 12th of July, 1776, a committee, who had been appointed by Congress to prepare and digest a form of confederation, reported certain articles, the discussion of which occupied a great share of the attention of that body until November 15, 1777, the day of their final adoption. They were subsequently agreed to by the several state governments. By these articles it was determined that, on the first Monday of November in each year, a general Congress should be convoked, of deputies from each of the

States, and invested with all the powers which belong to the sovereigns of other nations. These powers were set forth, and the limits between the authority of the state and national government as clearly defined, as was at the time practicable. These "Articles of Confederation" gave to the nation the style of the "United States of America," and formed the basis of the American government until the adoption of the federal constitution.

Unlimited power was granted by Congress to Washington to raise troops, command them, and carry on the war, an act which showed the unbounded confidence reposed in him by all who were engaged in the great struggle for independence.

Never was a more devoted or a wiser band of patriots than that which composed the Congress of '76. They were environed with difficulties which would have utterly discouraged men of weaker heads or fainter hearts. They were without any power except the power to recommend. They had an exhausted army to recruit, amidst a discouraged people, and a powerful and triumphant foe; and all this, not merely without money, but almost without credit; for the bills, which they had formerly issued, had greatly depreciated and were daily depreciating; yet, amidst all these discouragements, they held on their course of patriotic exertions undismayed.




WASHINGTON REVIEWING THE ARMY.



WASHINGTON CROSSING THE DELAWARE.

CHAPTER XXI.

THE STRUGGLE FOR LIBERTY.

HE first attempts of the enemy, during the campaign of 1777, were against the American stores collected at Courtland Manor, in New York, and at Danbury in Connecticut. Peekskill, the port of the Manor, was then in command of Colonel McDougal. The 23d of March the British, under Colonel Bird, attacked this post; and McDougal, knowing his small force could not defend it, destroyed the magazines and retired to the back country. The 25th of April two thousand men, under Governor Tryon, major of the royalists, or tories, having passed the sound, landed between Fairfield and Norwalk. The next day, proceeding to Danbury, he compelled the garrison, under Colonel Huntington, to retire; and not only destroyed the stores, but burned the town.

About this time the effects of the mission to France began to appear. Congress had, with great judgment, selected Dr. Franklin as one of the commissioners. A profound knowledge of human nature, united with a warm and cheerful benevolence, had given to this philosopher a manner possessing a peculiar charm, attractive to all, however different their tastes or pursuits.

Several individuals of distinction in France formed the generous resolution of embarking in the cause of America, and combating in her armies. The most distinguished of these was the young Marquis de Lafayette. With everything to attach him to his country, rank, wealth, a deserving and beloved bride, he was yet moved by compassion to suffering virtue, and by indignation against oppression, to leave all that was individually dear, to expose his life, and impair his fortune in the cause of American liberty, and the rights of man. He had early communicated his resolution to the commissioners.

After hearing of the disasters which followed the battle of Long Island, they felt bound to make known to him the despairing state of their country; and to say that such was its extreme poverty, that they could not even

provide him with a vessel for his conveyance. "Then," said Lafayette, "if your country is indeed reduced to this extremity, this is the moment that my departure to join its armies will render it the most essential service." His arrival caused a deep sensation of joy among the people.



THE MARQUIS DE LAFAYETTE.

Congress soon made him a major-general in the army; and Washington received him into his family, and regarded him through life with parental affection.

On the night of July 10, 1777, occurred the capture of the British General Prescott, then in command on Rhode Island. Colonel Barton, with forty country militia, from Warwick, under his command, proceeded ten miles in whale boats, landed between Newport and Bristol, and marched a mile to Prescott's quarters, took the general from his bed, and conducted him with dispatch to a place

of safety on the main land, where he remained secure from molestation.

Meantime great preparations were making for a descent upon the United States from Canada. The plan of dividing the states, by effecting a junction of the British army through Lake Champlain and the Hudson, was, at the beginning of this year, looked to, by the whole British nation, as the certain means of effecting the reduction of America. This scheme had gained new favor in England, by the representations of General Bur-

goyne, an officer who had served under Carleton, and whose knowledge of American affairs was, therefore, undisputed. Burgoyne, by his importunities with the British ministry, obtained the object for which he had made a voyage to England. He was appointed to the command of all the troops in Canada, to the prejudice of Governor Carleton, and was furnished with an army and military stores. With these he arrived at Quebec in May.

General Carleton exhibited an honorable example of moderation and patriotism, by seconding Burgoyne in his preparations, with great diligence



GENERAL BURGoyNE ADDRESSING THE INDIANS.

and energy. To increase the army, he exerted, not only his authority as governor, but also his influence among his numerous friends and partisans. Though himself averse to using the savages, yet, such being the orders of the British government, he aided in bringing to the field even a greater number than could be employed.

Burgoyne's army was provided with a formidable train of artillery. The army consisted of 7,173 British and German troops, besides several thousands of Canadians and Indians. Burgoyne's plan of operation was, that Colonel St. Leger should proceed with a detachment by the St. Law-

rence, Oswego, and Fort Stanwix, to Albany. Burgoyne, proceeding by Champlain and the Hudson, was to meet St. Leger at Albany, and both join General Clinton at New York.

His preparations completed, Burgoyne moved forward with his army, and made his first encampment on the western shore of Lake Champlain, at the river Boquet. Here, in two instances, he betrayed that vanity which was his characteristic weakness. He made a speech to his Indian allies, in which, in terms of singular energy, and with an imposing manner, he endeavored to persuade them to change their savage mode of warfare.

Daring Exploit of Two American Officers.

St. Leger had united with Sir John Johnson, and having nearly 2,000 troops, including savages, they invested Fort Stanwix, then commanded by Colonel Gansevoort. General Herkimer, having collected the militia, marched to the relief of Gansevoort. He fell into an Indian ambuscade on the 6th of August, and was defeated and slain, with 400 of his troops. St. Leger, wishing to profit by his victory, pressed upon the fort. In this perilous moment, Colonel Willet and Lieutenant Stockton left the fort, fighting their way through the English camp; and, eluding the Indians, they arrived at German Flats, and proceeded to Albany, to alarm the country and gain assistance.

General Schuyler, on hearing the danger of the fort, dispatched Arnold to its relief. On hearing of his approach, the Indians, having previously become dissatisfied, mutinied, and compelled St. Leger to return to Montreal. On the way, they committed such depredations on the British troops, as to leave the impression, that they were no less dangerous as allies, than as enemies. Burgoyne took possession of Skeenesborough; and the American army, under Schuyler, retired from Fort Edward to Saratoga, and, on the 13th of August, to the islands at the mouth of the Mohawk.

Congress was aware of the great merits and exertions of General Schuyler; yet they found that the misfortunes of the army had, though undeservedly, made him unpopular; and, therefore, it was necessary to supersede him, in order to make way for a leader who should inspire a confidence that would draw volunteers to the service. Accordingly, General Gates was appointed to the command, but did not arrive at the camp until the 21st of August. Lincoln also was ordered to the north, as were Arnold and Morgan, whose active spirits and brilliant achievements, it was hoped, would

reanimate the dispirited troops. The celebrated patriot of Poland, Kosciusko, was also in the army, as its chief engineer.

Burgoyne, having, with great expense of labor and time, opened a way for his army from Skeenesborough to the Hudson, arrived at Fort Edward on the 30th of July. But being in a hostile country, he could obtain no supplies except from Ticonderoga; and these he was compelled to transport by the way of Lake

George. Learning that there was a large depot of provisions at Bennington, he sent 500 men, under Lieutenant-Colonel Baum, a trusty German officer, to seize them.

General Stark, with a body of New Hampshire militia, was on his march to join General Schuyler, when hearing of Baum's approach, he recruited his forces from the neighboring militia, and, with 1600 men, met him four miles from Bennington. After a sharp conflict Baum was killed and his party defeated. The

militia had dispersed to seek for plunder, when a British reinforcement of 500 men, under Colonel Breymann, arrived. Fortunately for the Americans, the Green Mountain Boys, under Colonel Warner, appeared at the same time, and the British were again defeated and compelled to retreat. Their loss in both engagements was 600, the greater part of whom were taken



GENERAL HORATIO GATES.

prisoners. The speech attributed to General Stark, as he was about to lead his men to battle, is worthy of being remembered. "Now, my boys," he said, "we must beat them, or Mollie Stark is a widow to-night." The American loss was inconsiderable.

The victory at Bennington was important in its consequences, as it proved the turning of that tide of fortune which had set so strongly in favor of the British arms. It embarrassed, weakened and dispirited them; and was the first step in defeating their grand scheme of dividing the north from the south—while it revived the drooping hearts of the Americans, and gave the impulse of hope to their exertions. This was strengthened by an impulse of another kind, but operating in the same direction. A cry of vengeance for murder was raised against the British on account of an atrocious act, committed by their Indian allies.

Romantic Story of Miss McCrea.

Miss McCrea, an interesting young lady of Fort Edward, was betrothed to Captain Jones, then in the army of Burgoyne, which had now approached near to that place. Impatient for his marriage, the lover sent a party of Indians, as the safest convoy he could procure for his bride across the woods to the British camp; having secured, as he thought, their fidelity by promise of reward. Confiding love prevailed in her mind over her strong fears of these terrible guides; and the unfortunate girl left, by stealth, the kind shelter of her paternal roof.

Meantime her anxious lover, to make her safety more sure, sent out another party with like promises. The two met; and the last demanded that the lady should be committed to them. Rather than give her up, and thus, as they supposed, lose their reward, the barbarians tied to a tree their innocent and helpless victim, and shot her dead. Instead of his bride the bridegroom received the bloody tresses, which the murderers had cut from her dying head. The sight withered and blasted him; and, after lingering awhile, he died.

The complicated miseries of a battle scene crowd the picture and confuse the mind; and thus often produce less sympathy than a single case of distress. In the present instance every man could feel what it would have been or would be to him to have his bride torn, as it were, from his arms, shrieking, and murdered in the hour of his love and expectation; and every pains was used to awaken these sympathies to their utmost

extent, and turn them against the British who had let loose such bloodhounds upon the land. There was a general rising in the northern region and it seemed as if every man, who could bear arms, was rushing to the camp of Gates, to avenge the death of Miss McCrea, no less than to deliver his country.

The army at the islands having thus been reinforced, and now amounting to 5000, Gates left that encampment the 8th of September, and proceeding to Stillwater, occupied Bemus Heights. On the 12th Burgoyne crossed the Hudson, and on the 14th encamped at Saratoga, about three miles distant from the American army. An obstinate and bloody battle occurred at Stillwater on the 19th. At first it was partial, commencing with a skirmish between advanced parties. Each side sent successive reinforcements to their own combatants, until nearly the whole were in action. The American troops took advantage of a wood which lay between the two camps, and poured from it a fire too deadly to be withstood.

Hard-Fought Battle at Saratoga.

The British lines broke; and the Americans, rushing from their coverts, pursued them to an eminence, where their flanks being supported, they rallied. Charging in their turn, they drove the Americans into the woods, from which they again poured a deadly fire, and again the British fell back. At every charge the British artillery fell into the hands of the Americans, who could neither carry it off or turn it on the enemy. At length night came on, and to fight longer would be to attack indiscriminately friend and foe. The Americans retired to their camp, having lost between three and four hundred men. The loss of the British was five hundred. Both sides claimed the victory; but the advantage was clearly on the side of the Americans.

Skirmishes, frequent and animated, occurred between this and the 7th of October, when a general battle was fought at Saratoga. At this time the right wing of General Gates occupied the brow of the hill near the river, his camp being in the form of the segment of a large circle, the convex side towards the enemy.

The Americans, under General Poor, attacked the left flank and front of the British; and, at the same time, Colonel Morgan assailed their right. The action became general. The efforts of the combatants were desperate. Burgoyne and his officers fought like men who were defending at the last



EXPLOIT OF BENEDICT ARNOLD AT THE BATTLE OF SARATOGA.

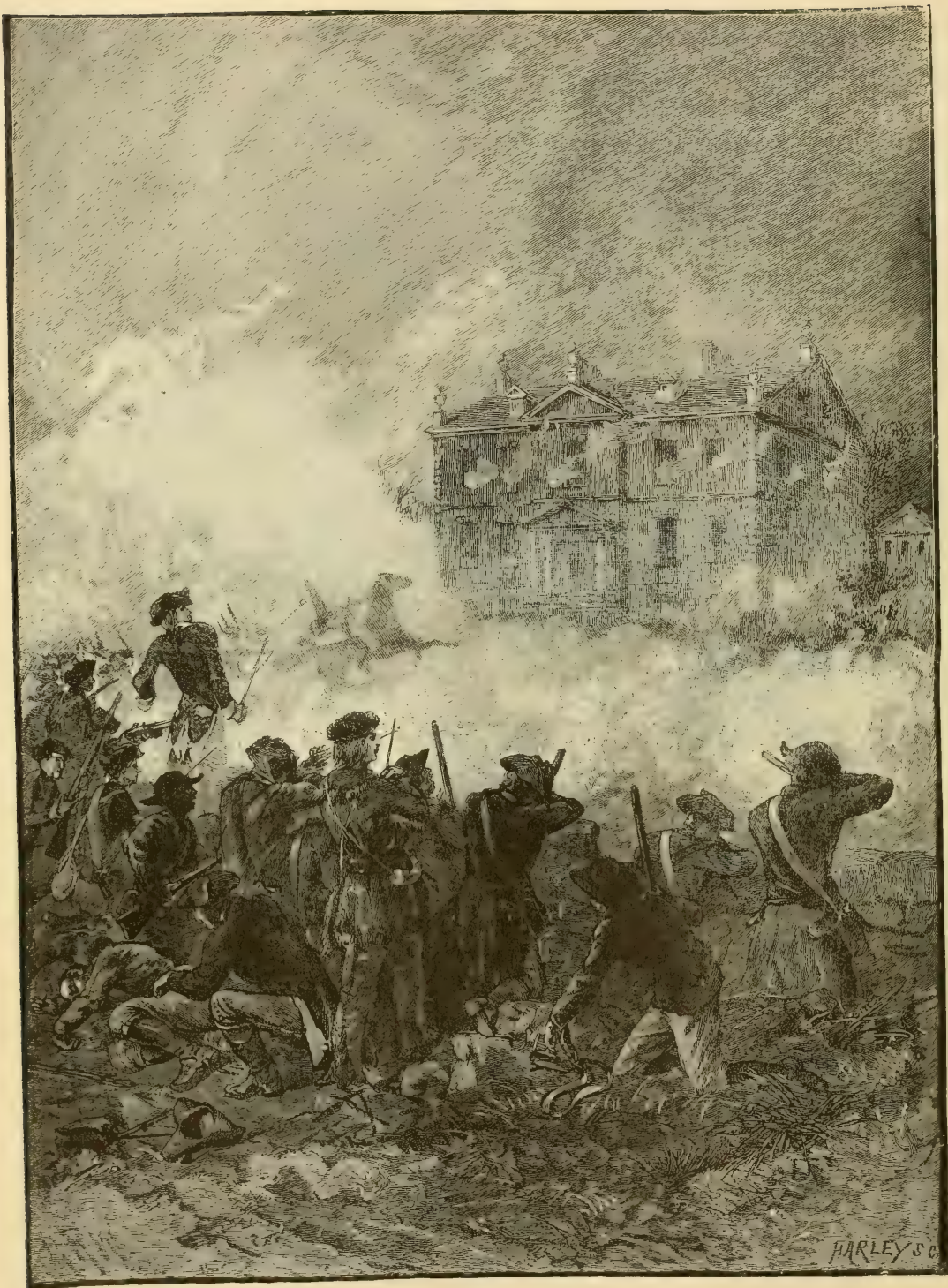
cast their military reputation; Gates and his army, like those who were deciding whether themselves and their children should be freemen or slaves. The invading army gave way in the short space of fifty-two minutes. The defenders of the soil pursued them to their entrenchments, forced the guard, and killed Colonel Breymann, its commander. Arnold, the tiger of the American army, whose track was marked by carnage, headed a small band, stormed their works, and followed them into their camp. But his horse was killed under him, he was himself wounded, and darkness was coming on. He retired; thus reserving to another day the ruin of the British army.

Surrender of General Burgoyne.

Burgoyne now made efforts in various directions to effect a retreat; but in every way he had been anticipated. He found himself in a foreign and hostile country, hemmed in by a foe whose army, constantly increasing, already amounted to four times his own wasting numbers. His boats, laden with his supplies, were taken, and his provisions were failing. He had early communicated with Sir Henry Clinton at New York, and had urged his co-operation. More recently, when his fortune began to darken, he had entreated him for speedy aid, stating that, at the farthest, his army could not hold out beyond the 12th of October. The 12th arrived without the expected succor. His army was in the utmost distress, and Burgoyne capitulated on the 17th.

The whole number surrendered amounted to 5752 men, which, together with the troops lost before, by various disasters, made up the whole British loss to 9213. There also fell into the hands of the Americans thirty-five brass field pieces and 5000 muskets.

The British, having been driven out of New Jersey, formed the plan of taking possession of Philadelphia by an approach by way of Chesapeake Bay. In August Sir William Howe sailed from New York with 16,000 men, and on the 24th reached the head of Elk River, in Maryland, from which point his army marched in two columns upon Philadelphia. On the 11th of September the American army on the Brandywine was defeated with considerable loss. Lafayette was among the severely wounded. Washington entered Philadelphia the following day. On the 19th his army crossed the Schuylkill and posted themselves on the eastern bank of the river. Detachments were placed at the several fords where the enemy were likely to cross.



ATTACK ON CHEW'S HOUSE AT THE BATTLE OF GERMANTOWN.

General Anthony Wayne, with 1500 men, was concealed in the woods. His purpose was to assail the rear of the invading army, but his presence was revealed to the British, who on the night of the 20th attacked him and killed about 300 men. This event is known as the Paoli massacre.

Having secured the command of the Schuylkill, Howe crossed with his whole army. He advanced to Germantown, and on the 27th took peaceable possession of Philadelphia. The American army, re-enforced to 11,000 men, established some eighteen miles from Germantown.

Washington having learned that Howe had withdrawn a part of his force from Germantown, resolved to surprise the remainder. A night march brought the American army to Germantown at sunrise on the morning of the 4th of October. A heavy fog hung over the country and prevented the commander-in-chief from seeing either the position of the enemy or that of his own troops.

The British were taken by surprise and were driven in disorder. The victory seemed within the grasp of Washington, when the Americans abandoned the pursuit to attack a stone house, known as "Chew's House," in which a number of the enemy had taken refuge. While thus engaged they were seized with an unaccountable panic, which threw them into confusion. The British rallied, and, assailing the Americans in their turn, drove them from the field with a loss of one thousand men. Washington was greatly mortified by this failure. He wrote to Congress: "Every account confirms the opinion I at first entertained, that our troops retreated at the instant when victory had declared itself in our favor."



GENERAL ANTHONY WAYNE.

A few days after the battle, the royal army removed from Germantown to Philadelphia. Scarcity of provisions prevented Howe from following the Americans, and he wished to co-operate in the design of opening the navigation of the Delaware. Indeed, this measure became necessary to the

preservation of his army, which could not draw subsistence from the adjacent country; so effectually did the menacing attitude of Washington's army operate, and also the edict of Congress, which pronounced the penalty of death upon any citizen who should dare to afford him supplies. Thus situated, the British general found, as Dr. Franklin wittily remarked, that, "instead of taking Philadelphia, Philadelphia had taken him." Lord Howe finally opened the navigation of the Delaware, so that he could communicate with his brother, the admiral.

Sufferings of Our Army at Valley Forge.

Washington, on the 11th of December, retired to Valley Forge, on the Schuylkill, twenty miles above Philadelphia. Here, in a wood on a high ground, he laid out his camp, and employed his army in building huts for winter-quarters. This work was not completed, when the magazines were found to contain scarcely a single day's provision. As to their clothing, some few of the soldiers had one shirt, some the remnant of one, the greater part none at all. Barefooted, on the frozen ground, their feet cut by ice, they left their tracks in blood. A few only had the luxury of a blanket at night. Cold and naked, more than 3,000 were excused from duty.

Straw could not be obtained; and the soldiers, who, during the day, were benumbed with cold, and enfeebled by hunger, had at night no other bed than the humid ground. Diseases attacked them, and the hospitals were replenished as rapidly as the dead were carried out. The unsuitableness of the buildings, and the multitude of sick that crowded them, caused an insupportable fetor. Hospital fever ensued. It could not be remedied by change of linen, for none could be had; nor by salubrious diet, as even the coarsest was not attainable; nor by medicines, as even the worst were wholly wanting. The hospitals resembled more receptacles for the dying than places of refuge for the diseased.

The patience with which these patriotic votaries of freedom endured such complicated evils, is, we believe, without a parallel in history. To go to battle, cheered by the trumpet and the drum, with victory or the speedy bed of honor before the soldier, requires a heroic effort; much more to starve, to freeze, and to lie down and die, in silent obscurity. Sparta knew the names of the individuals who fell in her cause at the pass of Thermopylæ; but America scarcely knows how many hundreds perished for her in the camp at Valley Forge.

CHAPTER XXII.

BATTLES AND SIEGES.

ABOUT the 5th of June, 1778, the British took measures to evacuate Philadelphia. This they accomplished on the morning of the 18th, their army proceeding through New Jersey towards New York. Washington immediately put his camp, at Valley Forge, in motion, and sent out a detachment to collect the New Jersey militia, in order to harass their rear. He thought it would be wise to bring the British to a general engagement; but this opinion was contrary to that of the majority of his officers.

He, however, persisted, and, following with his whole army, an engagement was brought about at Monmouth, or Freehold, on the 28th, in which the Americans had the advantage. The loss of the English was 700, that of the Americans much less. Though both sides claimed the victory, yet historians agree in awarding it to the Americans, as they remained masters of the field of battle.

A French fleet, consisting of twelve ships of the line, and six frigates, was now sent to the aid of America, commanded by the Count d'Estaing. The admiral left Toulon on the 18th of April, with the intention of blockading the British in the Delaware. He entered the mouth of the river, on the 8th of June; but, finding that Admiral Howe had left Philadelphia for New York, he proceeded to that place, designing to engage him there; but the large size of his ships prevented.

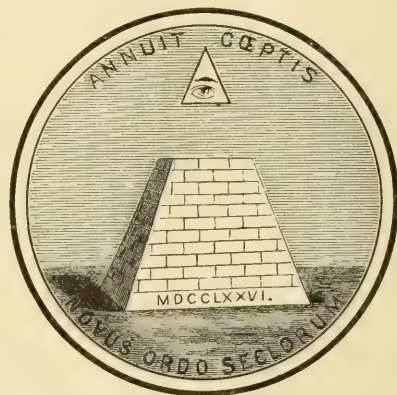
In place of the combined attack upon New York, it was resolved by Washington, in concert with the French admiral, to attack Newport, and drive the British out of Rhode Island. The British had established one of their principal depots of supplies at this point, and had there a force of 6,000 men, under General Pigot. It was arranged that a force of American troops, under General Sullivan, should attack the enemy by land, while the French fleet and army should co-operate with Sullivan from the sea. On the 29th of July, d'Estaing reached Narragansett Bay with his fleet, and on the 8th of August entered Newport harbor, in spite of the fire of the

British batteries. A whole week had been lost, however, by the failure of the American troops to reach the positions assigned them as prompt as the French fleet. The delay was unavoidable, but it ruined the enterprise.

The inhabitants of Wyoming valley, a beautiful region on the Susquehanna, had driven away the Tories from that region, and these had resolved upon revenge. The Tories were called such on account of their sympathy with England. Early in July a force of about eleven hundred Tories and Indians, under Colonel John Butler and the Indian chief Brandt, entered the Wyoming valley, in Pennsylvania. Nearly all the able-bodied settlers were absent with the American army, and upon hearing of the approach of the enemy a small force had been dispatched by Washington under Colonel Zebulon Butler, to the assistance of the settlers.



OBERVERSE.



REVERSE.

This force was defeated by the Tories and Indians, who then proceeded to lay waste the valley and murder the inhabitants. They performed their bloody work in the most barbarous manner, and the beautiful valley was made a desolation. In the following month Cherry Valley, in New York, was ravaged with equal cruelty by a force of Tories and Indians, and the inhabitants were either murdered or carried into captivity. The entire region of the upper Susquehanna and Delaware and the valley of the Mohawk were at the mercy of the savage allies of Great Britain.

The American forces in the Southern States were commanded by General Benjamin Lincoln. The Tories were very numerous and very active in this region, and the feeling between them and the patriots was one of the bitterest hostility, and often manifested itself in bloody and relentless conflicts. Seven hundred Tories under Colonel Boyd set out in February,

1779, to join Colonel Campbell, at Augusta. On the 14th they were attacked at Kettle Creek by a force of patriots under Colonel Pickens, and were defeated with heavy loss. Pickens hung five of his prisoners as traitors.

General Lincoln now sent General Ashe with two thousand men to drive the British out of Augusta. Upon hearing of his approach Colonel Campbell evacuated Augusta and fell back to Briar Creek, a small stream about halfway to Savannah. Ashe followed him, but without observing proper caution, and on the 3d of March was surprised and routed by Campbell, with the loss of nearly his entire force. This defeat encouraged General Prevost to attempt the capture of Charleston.

He marched rapidly across the country to Charleston, and demanded its surrender. Lincoln, who had been reinforced, no sooner heard of this movement than he hastened by forced marches to the relief of Charleston, and compelled Prevost to retire to St. John's Island, opposite the mainland. The British threw up a redoubt at Stone ferry to protect the crossing to this island. It was attacked on the 20th of June by the forces of General Lincoln, who were repulsed with heavy loss. A little later Prevost withdrew to Savannah. The intense heat of the weather suspended military operations in the south during the remainder of the summer.

Savannah Besieged by the American Army.

In September, 1779, the French fleet under Count D'Estaing arrived off the coast of Georgia from the West Indies, and the admiral agreed to join Lincoln in an effort to recapture Savannah, which had been taken by the British earlier in the year. The American army began its investment of the city on the 23d of September, and everything promised favorably for success; but D'Estaing became impatient of the delay of a regular siege, and declared that he must return to the West Indies to watch the British fleet in those waters. Savannah must either be taken by assault, or he would withdraw from the siege.

To please him, Lincoln consented to storm the British works, and the assault was made on the 9th of October, but was repulsed with severe loss. D'Estaing himself was wounded, and the chivalrous Count Pulaski was killed. Lincoln now retreated to Charleston, and the French fleet sailed to the West Indies, having a second time failed to render any real assistance to the Americans. This disaster closed the campaign for the year in the south.



DEATH OF COUNT PULASKI AT THE BATTLE OF SAVANNAH.

In the meantime Sir Henry Clinton had been ordered by his government to harass the American coast, and in accordance with these instructions, dispatched a number of plundering expeditions from New York against exposed points. One of these was sent in May, under General Mathews, into the Chesapeake. Mathews entered the Elizabeth River, plundered the towns of Norfolk and Portsmouth, and burned one hundred and thirty merchant vessels and several ships of war on the stocks at Gosport, near Portsmouth. He then ascended the James for some distance and ravaged its shores. He destroyed in this expedition two millions of dollars' worth of property, and carried off about three thousand hogsheads of tobacco.

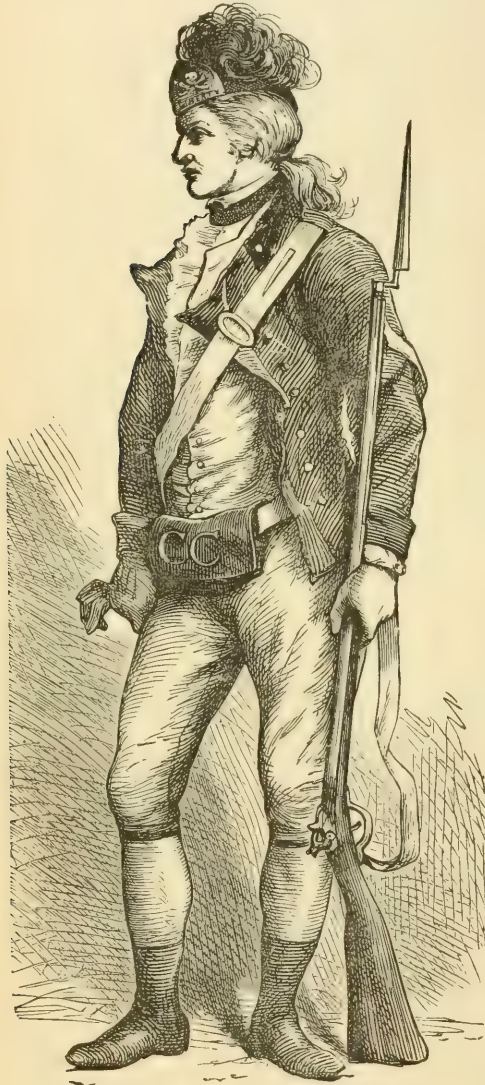
Towns Plundered and Burned by the British.

Upon the return of this expedition, Clinton ascended the Hudson for the purpose of destroying two forts which the Americans were constructing a short distance below West Point, for the protection of King's Ferry, an important crossing-place between the Eastern and Middle States. One of these, which was being built at Stony Point, was abandoned. The work on Verplanck's Point, on the east side of the Hudson, immediately opposite, was compelled to surrender early in June.

Returning to New York, Clinton sent General Tryon with twenty-five hundred men to plunder the coast of Long Island Sound. He plundered New Haven, burned Fairfield and Norwalk, and committed other outrages at Sag Harbor, on Long Island. In the course of a few days this inhuman wretch burned two hundred and fifty dwelling-houses, five churches, and one hundred and twenty-five barns and stores. Many of the inhabitants were cruelly murdered, and a number of women were outraged by the British troops. Tryon would have carried his outrages further had he not been recalled to New York by Clinton, who feared that Washington was about to attack him.

The loss of Stony Point was a serious blow to Washington, as it compelled him to establish a new line of communication between the opposite sides of the Hudson by a longer and more tedious route through the Highlands. He resolved, therefore, the recapture of the post from the British at all hazards. The British had greatly strengthened the fort, which the Americans had left unfinished, and the only way in which it could be captured was by a surprise. It was a desperate undertaking, and Washington proposed to General Anthony Wayne to attempt it.

Wayne readily consented, and the two generals made a careful reconnoissance of the position. It was agreed to make the attempt at midnight, and in order to guard against a betrayal of the movement every dog in the vicinity was put to death. A negro who visited the fort regularly to sell fruit, and who had been for some time acting as a spy for the Americans, agreed to guide them to the work.



AN AMERICAN RIFLEMAN.

At midnight on the 15th of July the storming party, guided by the negro, approached the fort in two divisions. Not a man was permitted to load his musket, lest the accidental discharge of a gun should ruin the movement. The negro, accompanied by two soldiers who were disguised as farmers, approached the first sentinel and gave the countersign. The sentinel was at once seized and gagged, and the same was done with the second sentinel. The third, however, gave the alarm, and the garrison flew to arms and opened a sharp fire upon the Americans. The latter now dashed forward at a run, scaled the parapet, and in a few moments the two opposite divisions met in the centre of the fort.

The Americans took more than five hundred prisoners and all the supplies and artillery of the fort fell into their hands. Though they were justly exasperated by the brutal outrages of the British, which we have related, they conducted themselves towards their prisoners with a noble humanity.

The privateers were unusually active, and were hunted with unremitting vigilance by the English war vessels. They managed to inflict great loss upon the commerce of Great Britain, however. A number of American cruisers were fitted out in France, and kept the English coast in terror.

John Paul Jones, a native of Scotland, who had been brought to Virginia at an early age, was one of the first naval officers commissioned by Congress. He was given command of the "Ranger," a vessel of eighteen guns, and by his brilliant and daring exploits kept the English coast in a state of terror, and even ventured to attack exposed points on the coast of Scotland. In 1779 he was given command of a small squadron of three ships of war fitted out in France, and sailing from L'Orient, proceeded on a cruise along the coast of Great Britain.

On the 23d of September he fell in with a fleet of merchantmen convoyed by two English frigates, and at once attacked them. The battle began at seven in the evening and was continued for three hours with great fury. Jones lashed his flagship, the "Bon Homme Richard," to the English frigate "Serapis," and the two vessels fought muzzle to muzzle until the Serapis surrendered. The other English vessel was also captured. The battle was one of the most desperate in the annals of naval warfare, and Jones' flagship was so badly injured that it sunk in a few hours after the fighting was over to the bottom of the sea.

Jones was absent from home for about three years, during which time his exploits were numerous, and of the most astonishing character. He was denounced as a pirate by the English, who became so alarmed by his achievements that many people did not feel safe even in London. Some of the timid ones looked out on the Thames, half-expecting to see the terrible fellow lay their city under tribute. At one time he landed on the coast of Scotland, and, appearing at the residence of the Earl of Selkirk, captured



JOHN PAUL JONES.

a large amount of silver plate and booty. But he treated the earl's household with great courtesy, and the plate that was seized at the time is now in the possession of the members of the Selkirk family.

Paul Jones returned to Philadelphia February 18, 1781, and received a hearty welcome. Congress gave him an appropriate medal, and a vote of thanks.

While these events had been transpiring upon the Atlantic seaboard, the United States had been steadily pushing their way westward beyond the mountains. In 1769, before the commencement of the Revolution, the beautiful region now known as Kentucky had been visited and explored by Daniel Boone, a famous Indian hunter. He was charmed with the beauty of the country, and the excellence of the climate, and resolved to make it his home. The reports of Boone and his companions aroused a great interest in the new country among the inhabitants of the older settlements in Virginia and North Carolina, more especially as it was in this region that the lands given to the Virginia troops, for their services in the French war, were located. Surveyors were soon after sent out to lay off these lands, and, in 1773, a party under Captain Bullit reached the falls of the Ohio, and built a fortified camp, for their protection while



MEDAL STRUCK IN HONOR OF PAUL JONES.

engaged in their work of surveying the region.

This was the commencement of the city of Louisville, but the actual settlement of the place was not begun until 1778. In 1774 Harrodsburg was founded by James Harrod, one of Boone's companions; and, in 1775, Daniel Boone built a fort on the site of the present town of Boonesborough. The savages made repeated attacks upon his party, but failed to drive them away. The fort was finished by the middle of April, and soon

after Boone was joined by his wife and daughters, the first white women in Kentucky.

About the last of December, 1779, Sir Henry Clinton, leaving a strong garrison under General Knyphausen to hold New York, sailed South, with the greater part of his army, in the fleet of Admiral Arbuthnot. He proceeded first to Savannah, and then moved northward, for the purpose of besieging Charleston. General Lincoln exerted himself with energy to fortify that city. Four thousand citizens enrolled themselves to assist the regular garrison in the defence, but only two hundred militia from the interior responded to Lincoln's call for aid. Reinforcements were received from Virginia and North Carolina, and Lincoln was able



DANIEL BOONE.

to muster seven thousand men, of whom but two thousand were regular troops.

In February, 1780, the British landed at St. John's Island, about thirty miles below Charleston. Clinton advanced towards the city along the

banks of the Ashley, while the fleet sailed around to force an entrance into the harbor. The advance of Clinton was very gradual, and Lincoln was enabled to strengthen his works, and prepare for a siege. It was not until early in April that Clinton's army appeared before the American works, and began preparations to reduce them. A day or two later, the British fleet passed Fort Moultrie, with but little loss, and took position off the city.

Charleston was now completely invested, and the siege was pressed with vigor by Clinton. Lincoln's situation became every day more hopeless. The fire of the British artillery destroyed his defences and dismounted his cannon, and, as he was entirely cut off from the country, he had no hope of relief from without. On the 9th day of May a terrific fire was opened upon the defences and the city of Charleston. The city was set on fire in five places, and the American works were reduced to a mass of ruins.

Marion and Sumter Continue the Fight.

On the 12th Lincoln surrendered the town and his army to Sir Henry Clinton. The prisoners, including every male adult in the city, numbered about six thousand men. The regulars were held as prisoners of war, but the militia were dismissed to their homes, on their promise not to serve again during the war.

The only resistance kept up by the Americans was maintained by the partisan corps of patriots led by Marion, Sumter, and Pickens. The exploits of these daring bands caused the British commander to feel that he could not hold the Carolinas except by the aid of a strong force, and kept him in a state of constant uneasiness. On the 16th of August Sumter defeated a large body of British and Tories at Hanging Rock, east of the Wateree River. Large numbers of negroes deserted their masters and fled to the British.

The fighting of Marion and his men was much like that of the wild Apaches of the southwest. When hotly pursued by the enemy his command would break up into small parties, and these, as they were hard pressed, would subdivide, until nearly every patriot was fleeing alone. There could be no successful pursuit, therefore, since the subdivision of the pursuing party weakened it too much.

"We will give fifty pounds to get within reach of the scamp that galloped by here, just ahead of us," exclaimed a lieutenant of Tarleton's

cavalry, as he and three other troopers drew up before a farmer, who was hoeing in the field by the roadside.

The farmer looked up, leaning on his hoe, took off his old hat, and mopping his forehead with his handkerchief,



TARLETON'S LIEUTENANT AND THE FARMER.

looked at the angry soldiers, and in a somewhat nonchalant manner said:

"Fifty pounds is a big lot of money." In our money it is two hundred dollars.

"So it is in these times, but we will give it to you in gold, if you'll show us where we can get a chance at that rebel; did you see anything of him?"

"He was all alone, wasn't he? And he was mounted on a black horse with a white star in his forehead, and he was going like a streak of lightning, wasn't he?"

"That's the fellow!" exclaimed the questioners, hoping they were about to get the knowledge they wanted.

"It looked to me like Jack Davis, though he went by so fast that I couldn't get a square look at his face, but he was one of Marion's men, and if I ain't greatly mistaken it was Jack Davis himself."

He Escaped on His Swift Horse.

Then looking up at the four British horsemen, the farmer added, with a quizzical expression:

"I reckon that ere Jack Davis has hit you chaps pretty hard this time, ain't he?"

"Never mind about *that*," replied the lieutenant; "what we want to know is where we can get a chance at him for just about five minutes. He has been in our camp, robbing and stealing like a pirate; two men grabbed him, but he knocked down one, killed the other, ran to his horse, and away he went. He had his animal in the woods close by, but it was such a poor looking brute that we felt sure of catching him. But we've ridden hard for two hours and are further off than when we started. His horse seemed to be tired, and I've an idea that he may be hiding somewhere around here."

The farmer put his cotton handkerchief into his hat, which he now slowly replaced, and shook his head:

"I don't think he's hiding round here," he said; "when he shot by Jack was going so fast that it didn't look as if he could stop under four or five miles. Strangers, I'd like powerful well to earn that fifty pounds, but I don't think you'll get a chance to squander it on me."

After some further questioning, the lieutenant and his men wheeled their horses and trotted back toward the main body of Tarleton's cavalry. The farmer plied his hoe for several minutes, gradually working his way

towards the stretch of woods some fifty yards from the roadside. Reaching the margin of the field, he stepped in among the trees, hastily took off his clothing, tied it up in a bundle, shoved it under a flat rock from beneath which he drew a suit no better in quality, but showing a faint semblance to a uniform. Putting it on and then plunging still deeper into the woods, he soon reached a dimly-marked track, which he followed only a short distance, when a gentle whinney fell upon his ear.

The next moment he vaulted on the back of a bony but blooded horse, marked by a beautiful star in his forehead. The satin skin of the steed shone as though he had been traveling hard, and his rider allowed him to walk along the path for a couple of miles, when he entered an open space where, near a spring, Francis Marion and fully two hundred men were encamped. They were eating, smoking and chatting as though no such a horror as war was known.

You understand, of course, that the farmer that leaned on his hoe by the roadside and talked to Tarleton's lieutenant about Jack Davis and his exploits was Jack Davis himself.

Infamous Plot of Benedict Arnold.

About this time a plot was discovered which involved the fair fame of one of the most brilliant officers of the American army. General Benedict Arnold had been disabled by the wounds he had received at Quebec and Saratoga from undertaking active service, and through the influence of Washington had been placed in command of Philadelphia after its evacuation by Clinton in 1778. There he lived in a style far beyond his means, and became involved in debts, which he was unable to pay. To raise the funds to discharge them he engaged in privateering and mercantile speculations. These were generally unsuccessful, and merely increased his difficulties. His haughty and overbearing manner involved him in a quarrel with the authorities of Pennsylvania, who accused him before Congress of abusing his official position and misusing the public funds.

He was tried by a court-martial and was sentenced to be reprimanded by the commander-in-chief. Washington performed this disagreeable task as delicately as possible, but did not lose his confidence in Arnold. He knew him as an able officer, but, as his acquaintance with him was limited, was most likely ignorant of the faults of Arnold's character, which were well known to the members of Congress from Connecticut, who had no

confidence in him. To them he was known to be naturally dishonest, regardless of the rights of others, and cruel and tyrannical in his dealings with those under his authority. Arnold never forgave the disgrace inflicted upon him by the sentence of the court-martial, and cherished the

determination to be revenged upon Washington for the reprimand received from him.

While in Philadelphia, Arnold had married a member of a Tory family, and was thus enabled to communicate readily with the British officers. He opened a correspondence with Sir Henry Clinton, signing himself Gustavus. He kept up this correspondence for several months, and then made himself known to the British commander. In the meantime, at his earnest solicitation, he was appointed by Washington, in August, 1780, to the command of West Point, the strongest and most



BENEDICT ARNOLD.

important fortress in America. He did this with the deliberate intention of betraying the post into the hands of the enemy.

The correspondence had been conducted on the part of Sir Henry Clinton by Major John Andre of the British army, a young man of amiable character and more than ordinary accomplishments. He wrote under the assumed name of John Anderson. He was an especial favorite of Sir Henry Clinton, and was beloved by the whole army in which he served. Soon after the appointment of Arnold to the command of West Point, Andre volunteered to go up the Hudson and have an interview with him for the purpose of completing the arrangements for the betrayal of that fortress.

His offer was accepted by Clinton, and he ascended the Hudson as far as Haverstraw in the sloop of war "Vulture." He was set ashore and was met near Haverstraw on the west bank of the Hudson by General

Arnold, on the 22d of September. The meeting took place about dark, and the night had passed before the arrangements were completed. Much against his will, Andre was compelled to pass the next day within the American lines. During the 23d the "Vulture," having attracted the attention of the Americans, was fired upon and forced to drop down the river. Andre found the man who had set him ashore unwilling to row him back to the sloop, and he was compelled to return to New York by land. He changed his uniform for a citizen's dress, and, provided with a pass from Arnold, under the name of John Anderson, set out for New York along the east bank of the river, which he deemed safer than the opposite shore.

All went well until Andre reached the vicinity of Tarrytown. He was stopped there by three young men, John Paulding, David Williams, and Isaac Van Wart. They asked him his name and destination, and he, supposing them to be Tories, did not use the pass given him by Arnold, but frankly avowed himself a British officer traveling on important business. To his great dismay he then learned that his captors were



MAJOR ANDRE.

of the patriotic party, and he offered them his watch, purse, and any reward they might name, if they would suffer him to proceed. They refused to allow him to stir a step, and searched his person. They found concealed in his boots papers giving the plan of West Point, and an account of its garrison.

Andre was taken by his captors before Colonel Jamison, the commander of the nearest American post. Jamison recognized the handwriting as that of Arnold, but, unwilling to believe that his commander could be

guilty of treason, he detained the prisoner, and wrote to Arnold, informing him of the arrest of Andre, and of the papers found upon his person. The papers themselves he forwarded by a special messenger to Washington, who was on his return from Hartford.



ESCAPE OF BENEDICT ARNOLD.

Arnold received Colonel Jamison's letter, as he sat at breakfast with some of his officers. He concealed his emotion, and, excusing himself to his guests, called his wife from the room, told her he must flee for his life, and hastening to his barge, escaped down the river to the "Vulture,"

and was received on board by the commander of that vessel. From his place of safety, he wrote to Washington, asking him to protect his wife, who, he declared, was innocent of any share in his plot.

When he learned that Arnold was safe, Andre wrote to Washington, and confessed the whole plot. He was at once brought to trial upon the charge of being within the American lines as a spy. The court-martial was presided over by General Greene, and Lafayette and Steuben were among its members. Andre asserted that he had been induced to enter the American lines by the misrepresentations of Arnold.


Sentenced to be Hanged.

He denied that he was a spy, and, though cautioned not to say anything that might criminate himself, he frankly confessed the whole plot. He was sentenced, upon his own confession, to be hanged. Clinton made great exertions to save him, and Washington, whose sympathy was won by the amiable character of Andre, was anxious to spare him. The circumstances of the case demanded that the law should be executed, and Andre was hanged at Tappan, near the Hudson, on the 2d of October, 1780. Congress voted to each of his three captors a pension of two hundred dollars for life, and a silver medal.

The plot of Arnold had been discovered by the merest chance, and the American cause had narrowly escaped a crushing disaster. The loss of West Point would have given the British the entire control of the Hudson, and have enabled them to separate New England from the Middle and Southern States. It might have proved fatal to the cause, and certainly would have reduced Washington to great extremities. Arnold received for his treachery the sum of ten thousand pounds sterling, and a commission as brigadier-general in the English service. He was regarded with general contempt by the English officers, who refused to associate with him, and were greatly averse to serving under him.

CHAPTER XXIII.

CLOSE OF THE WAR.

HE American army passed the winter of 1780-81 in cantonments east and west of the Hudson. The Pennsylvania troops were stationed near Morristown, and the New Jersey regiments at Pompton. Though the troops were better provided with food than during the previous winter their sufferings were still very severe. They were neglected by Congress, which was too much occupied with its dissensions to make any serious effort to relieve the wants of the soldiers.

On the 1st of January, 1781, thirteen hundred Pennsylvania troops left the camp at Morristown under arms and set off for Philadelphia to obtain redress from Congress. General Wayne, their commander, placed himself in front of them, and, pistol in hand, attempted to stop their march. In an instant their bayonets were at his breast. "We love, we respect you," they exclaimed, "but you are a dead man if you fire. Do not mistake us; we are not going to the enemy; were they now to come out you would see us fight under your orders with as much resolution and alacrity as ever." They halted at Princeton, where they were met by the agents of Sir Henry Clinton, who endeavored to induce them to join the British service. They promptly seized these men and delivered them up to General Wayne as spies. At a later period it was proposed to reward them for this action, but they refused to accept anything, saying: "We ask no reward for doing our duty to our country."

Congress was greatly alarmed by the approach of these troops, and a committee, accompanied by Read, the president, of Pennsylvania, was sent to meet them. The committee met the leaders of the mutineers and agreed to relieve their immediate wants and to secure them their back pay by means of certificates. Permission was given to all who had served three years to withdraw from the army. Upon these conditions the troops returned to duty.

Washington was very anxious to attempt something decisive with his

own army, if he could secure the aid of a French army and fleet. Two enterprises offered themselves to him—an attack upon New York, which had been greatly weakened by detachments sent from its garrison to the south, and an expedition against Cornwallis. That commander had left Wilmington on the 20th of April, and had advanced without encountering any serious resistance, to Petersburg, Virginia. He arrived there on the 20th of May, and was joined by the troops under General Philips, who had been plundering the country along the James River.

While Washington was hesitating which would be the best course to pursue, a French frigate arrived at Newport, with the Count de Barras on board, who had come to take command of the fleet at Newport. He brought the good news that a fleet of twenty ships-of-the-line, under the Count de Grasse, having on board a considerable force of troops, had sailed for America,

and might be expected to arrive in the course of a few months. Washington held a conference with the Count de Rochambeau, at Weathersfield, Connecticut, and it was resolved to attack New York. The French army was to march from Newport and form a junction with the Americans on the Hudson. A frigate was dispatched to the West Indies to inform the Count de Grasse of this arrangement, and to ask his co-operation.



LORD CORNWALLIS.

Sir Henry Clinton, who suspected the designs of Washington, now ordered Lord Cornwallis, who had crossed the James River, and was at Williamsburg, to send him a reinforcement of troops. Cornwallis prepared to comply with this order, and for that purpose marched towards Portsmouth, followed cautiously by Lafayette and Steuben, who had with them about four thousand American troops. On the march a slight engagement occurred, near Westover, between Lafayette and Cornwallis, in which the Americans narrowly escaped a defeat.

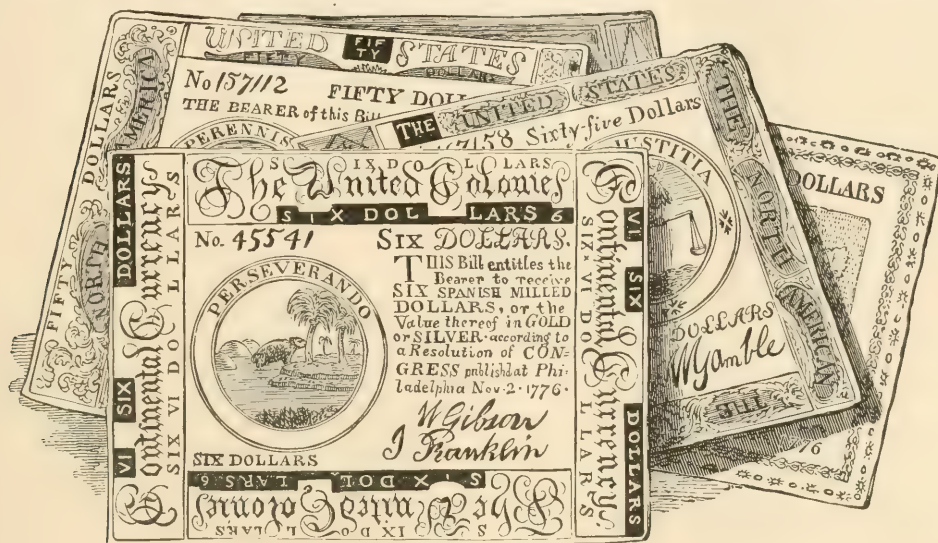
Yorktown Fortified by Cornwallis.

The British army crossed to the south side of the James, and a detachment was embarked for New York. At this moment a second order was received from Sir Henry Clinton, who had received a reinforcement of Hessians from England, directing Cornwallis to retain all his force, choose some central position in Virginia, fortify himself in it, and await the development of the American plans. Cornwallis should have taken position at Portsmouth, from which place his line of retreat to the South would have remained intact. In an evil hour for himself he recrossed the James, and crossing the peninsula between that river and the York, took position at the towns of Gloucester and Yorktown, opposite each other on the York River. He had with him an army of eight thousand effective troops, and proceeded to fortify his position with strong intrenchments. A number of vessels of war were anchored between Yorktown and Gloucester to maintain the communication between those points and to assist in the defence of the place.

During all this time the financial affairs of the republic were growing worse and more hopeless. The continental currency had become utterly worthless—one dollar in paper being worth only one cent in coin at the opening of the year 1781. In the spring of that year Congress sought to put an end to its financial troubles by taking the control of the finances from a board which had hitherto managed them, and intrusting them to Robert Morris.

In July Washington was joined in the Highlands by the French army under Count de Rochambeau, and preparations were made to attack New York. An intercepted letter informed Sir Henry Clinton of this design, and he exerted himself to put the city in a state of defence. In the midst of his preparations Washington received a letter from the Count de Grasse,

stating that he would sail for the Chesapeake instead of Newport. This decision of the French admiral compelled an entire change of plan on the part of the Americans. As De Grasse would not co-operate with them they must abandon the attack upon New York, and attempt the capture of Cornwallis at Yorktown. No time was to be lost in making the attempt, for it was now the month of August. By a series of skilful movements Sir Henry Clinton was induced to believe that an attack upon New York



CONTINENTAL BILLS.

would soon be made, and at the same time the American army was marched rapidly across New Jersey, followed by the French. Lafayette, who was in Virginia, was ordered to prevent at all hazards a retreat of Cornwallis' army to North Carolina, and was directed to ask assistance of General Greene if necessary.

The plan of Washington was to blockade Cornwallis in the York River by means of the French fleet, and at the same time to besiege him in Yorktown with the army. The troops were somewhat unwilling to undertake a southern campaign in August, but their good humor was restored at Philadelphia, where they received a part of their pay in specie, and a supply of clothing, arms and ammunition, which had just arrived from France. From Philadelphia the combined armies proceeded to Elkton, at head of the Chesapeake, where they found transports, sent by the French admiral and by Lafayette, to convey them to the James River.

The first intimation Sir Henry Clinton had of a change in the Ameri-

can plans was the sudden sailing of the French fleet from Newport on the 28th of August. Supposing that De Barras's object was to unite with another fleet in the Chesapeake, Clinton sent Admiral Graves to prevent the junction. Upon reaching the capes the British admiral was astonished to find the fleet of the Count de Grasse, consisting of twenty ships-of-the-line, anchored within the bay. De Grasse at once put to sea as if to engage the enemy, but in reality to draw them off and allow De Barras to enter the Chesapeake. For five days he amused the English by constant skirmishing. De Barras at length appeared and passed within the capes, and De Grasse at once followed him. Admiral Graves was unwilling to attack this combined force and returned to New York.

Arnold's Depredations in New England.

The movement of the American army to the south was known to Clinton, but he supposed it was only a manœuvre to draw him off Manhattan Island into the open country. When the Americans were beyond the Delaware, and the French fleets had effected their junction in the Chesapeake, he recognized his mistake, and saw that the object of Washington was the capture of Cornwallis. It was too late to prevent it; but, in the hope of compelling Washington to send back a part of his force to defend New England, Clinton sent the traitor Arnold, with a large body of troops, to attack New London, in Connecticut. On the 6th of September Arnold captured that town, and burned the shipping and a large part of the town.

He then took Fort Griswold, on the opposite side of the Thames, by storm, and basely massacred Colonel Indyard, the commander, and sixty of the garrison, after the surrender of the fort. The militia of the State were summoned to take up arms for its defence, and responded in such numbers that Arnold became alarmed for his safety, and returned to New York. The object of his expedition failed most signally. Washington left New England to defend herself, and continued his movement against Cornwallis.

Cornwallis was very slow to realize his danger. He believed the small force under Lafayette the only command opposed to him, and, on the 10th of September, wrote to Clinton that he could spare him twelve hundred men for the defence of New York. He did not perceive his error until the French fleet had anchored in the Chesapeake, and cut off his escape by water. He then attempted to retreat to North Carolina, as Washington

had foreseen, but Lafayette, who had been reinforced by three thousand French troops, under the Marquis de St. Simon, from the fleet of De Grasse, was too active for him, and, finding his retreat impossible, Cornwallis sent urgent appeals to Clinton for assistance, and strengthened his fortifications.

In the meantime the American and French armies descended the Chesapeake, and took position before Yorktown, while the French fleet closed the mouth of the York river. The siege was begun on the 28th of September. Sixteen thousand men were present under Washington's orders. Works were erected completely enclosing those of the British, and on the 9th of October the cannonade was begun. It was continued for four days, and the British outworks were greatly damaged, and several of their vessels in the river were burned, by means of red-hot shot thrown into them by the French vessels.

The Enemy's Intrenchments Stormed.

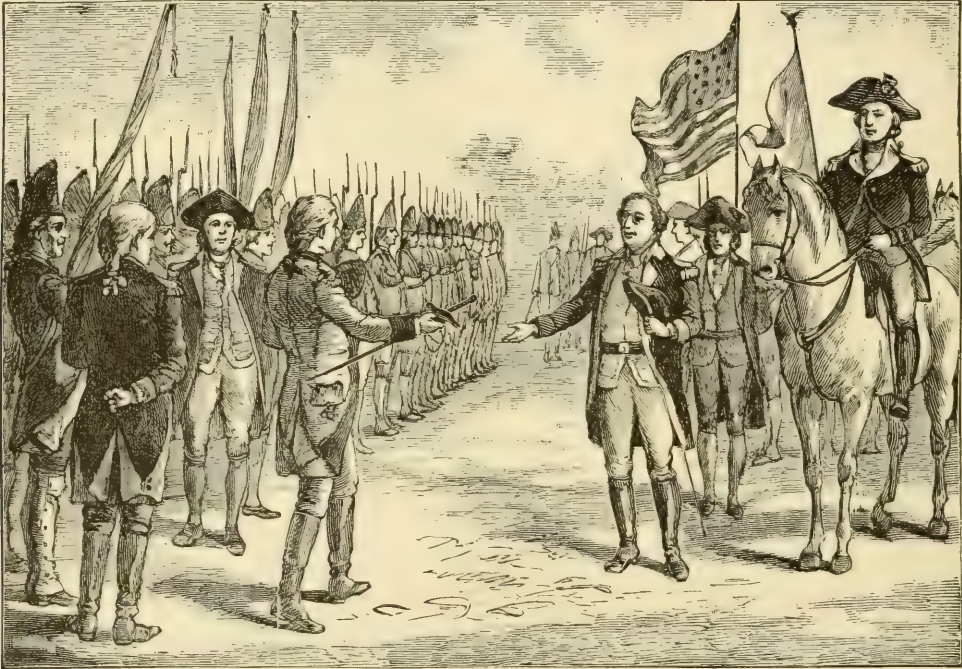
On the 14th, two of the advanced redoubts of the enemy were stormed and taken, one by the Americans, the other by the French. From the positions thus gained, a very destructive fire was maintained upon the English lines, which were broken in many places, while many of their guns were dismounted and rendered useless. On the 15th Cornwallis found himself almost out of ammunition, and unable to maintain his position but for a few days longer.

In this strait, the British commander resolved upon the desperate alternative of crossing the York to Gloucester, abandoning his sick and wounded, and baggage, and endeavoring to force his way northward by extraordinary marches to New York. It was a hopeless undertaking, but Cornwallis resolved to make the trial. On the night of the 16th of October, he crossed a part of his army from Yorktown to Gloucester, but a sudden storm delayed the passage of the river by the second division until after daylight, when it was useless to make the attempt.

The first division was with difficulty brought back to Yorktown, as the boats were exposed to the fire of the American batteries while crossing the river. Nothing was left to Cornwallis now but a capitulation, as his works were in no condition to withstand an assault, and simple humanity to his men demanded that the contest should cease. He sent to Washington an offer to surrender, and the terms were soon arranged. On the 19th of October Cornwallis surrendered his army of seven thousand men as pris-

oners of war to Washington, as commander of the allied army, and his shipping, seamen and naval stores to the Count de Grasse, as the representative of the king of France.

Washington dispatched one of his aids to Philadelphia to communicate the good news to Congress. The officer pushed forward with all speed, and reached Philadelphia at midnight, and delivered his message. Soon the peals of the State-house bell roused the citizens, and the watchmen took up the cry, "Cornwallis is taken! Cornwallis is taken!" The people poured



SURRENDER OF LORD CORNWALLIS.

out into the streets in throngs, and no one slept in Philadelphia that night. The next day Congress proceeded in a body to a church and gave thanks for the great victory. A national thanksgiving was ordered, and throughout the whole land rejoicings went up to God for the success which all men felt was decisive of the war.

On the 19th of October, the day of the surrender of Cornwallis, Sir Henry Clinton sailed from New York to his assistance with a force of seven thousand men. Off the capes he learned of the surrender of the British army at Yorktown, and as his fleet was not strong enough to meet that of the French, he returned at once to New York.

The news of the surrender of Cornwallis was received in England with astonishment and mortification. It was the second time England had lost an entire army by capture, and her efforts to subdue the United States were no nearer success than they had been at the opening of the war. The English people had never regarded the attempt to conquer America with favor, and they now became more open and energetic in their demands for peace. "Lord North, the prime minister," says an English writer, "received the intelligence of the capture of Cornwallis as he would have done a cannon ball in his breast; he paced the room, and throwing his arms wildly about, kept exclaiming, 'O God! it is all over! it is all over!'" The king and the aristocracy, however, had no thought of yielding yet to the popular pressure, and were resolved to carry on the war.

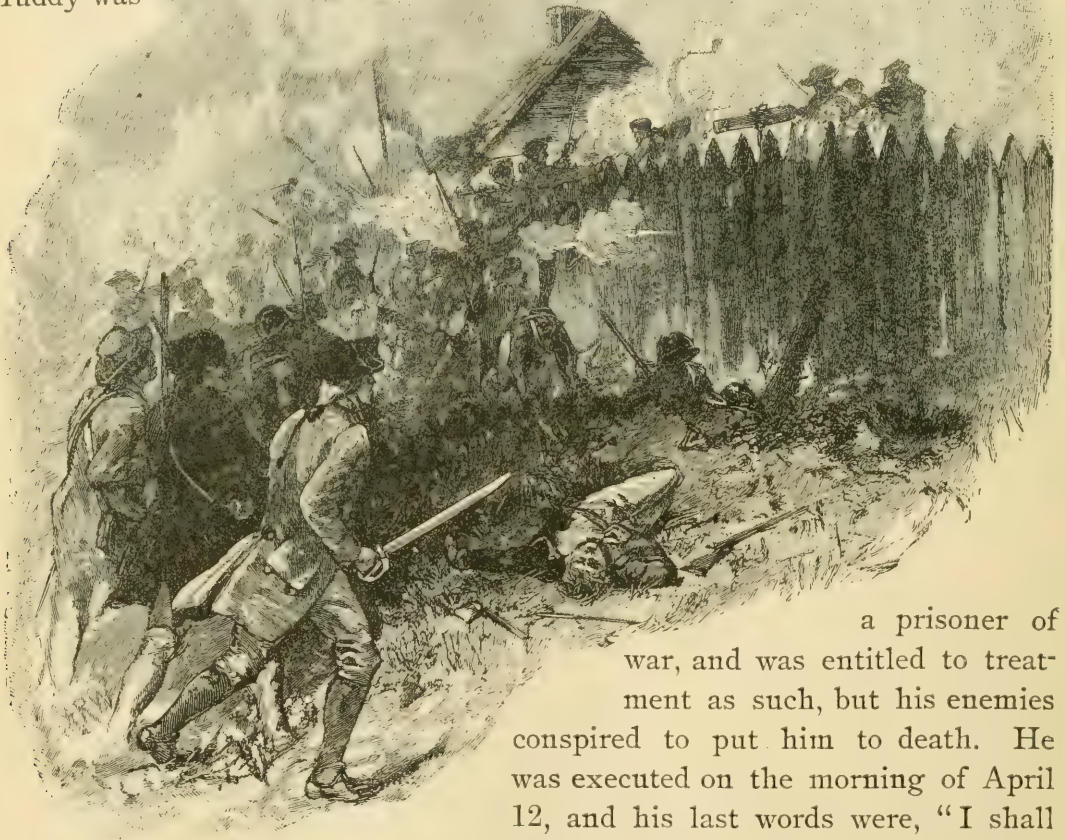
Washington's Army again on the Hudson.

After the surrender at Yorktown, Washington urged the Count de Grasse to co-operate with General Greene in an attack upon Charleston. The French admiral declined to comply with his request, alleging the necessity of his immediate return to the West Indies. The French troops were quartered for the winter at Williamsburg, Virginia, and the American army returned northward and resumed its old position on the Hudson. Washington, though convinced that peace was close at hand, did not relax his vigilance, and urged upon Congress the necessity of preparing for a vigorous campaign the next year; but so thoroughly was Congress carried away by the prospect of peace that his recommendations were unheeded.

In the south the British and Tories were so disheartened by the surrender of Cornwallis that they ceased active operations and evacuated all their posts but Savannah and Charleston. General Greene at once disposed his army in such a manner as to confine them closely to Charleston. In the Northern States the only place held by the British was New York.

Some of the staunchest patriots and some of the most ferocious Tories resided in Monmouth county, New Jersey. The patriots built a block-house of logs at Dover, which was a strongly fortified building. The only method of ingress or egress was by the use of a scaling ladder. Captain John Huddy was commander of this post, and was one of the bravest men who fought for the American cause. His house was once surrounded by his foes, but escaping he jumped into the waters of the bay, and as he swam he shouted, "I am Huddy!" His escape was remarkable.

On March 20, 1782, a party of forty Tories and eighty seamen, all fully armed, left New York in whaleboats for the purpose of capturing Captain John Huddy. Their coming was announced by scouts, and preparations were made to receive them. The battle was one of the fiercest of the war. The powder in the fortress at length gave out, and Huddy, with sixteen men, four of whom were seriously wounded, was taken prisoner. Huddy was



ATTACK ON THE BLOCK-HOUSE.

a prisoner of war, and was entitled to treatment as such, but his enemies conspired to put him to death. He was executed on the morning of April 12, and his last words were, "I shall die innocent, and in a good cause."

Captain Lippincott, who ordered Huddy's execution, cursed his men because they were unwilling to take the life of so brave a foe, and with his own hand helped to pull the rope.

Returning to New York he reported to the board of loyalists that he had "exchanged" Captain Huddy for Philip White. The pastor of the Presbyterian Church at Freehold preached the funeral sermon from the front porch of the old Freehold hotel, and the body was buried with the honors of war.

The desire of the English people for the close of the war had grown too strong to be resisted, and the king and his ministers were at length forced to yield. The impossibility of conquering America had become so apparent to the continental nations that in the spring of 1782 the Dutch republic recognized the independence of the United States, and received John Adams as envoy from that government. The king of England maintained his obstinate opposition to the wishes of his people to the last moment. On the 22d of February, 1782, a resolution was introduced into the House of Commons to put an end to the American war and was supported by the leaders of the Whig party. It was defeated by a majority of one, but on the 27th of February a similar resolution was introduced and was carried by a majority of nineteen.

A Cessation of Hostilities Proposed.

On the 20th of March Lord North and his colleagues were forced to relinquish their offices, and a new ministry was formed under the Marquis of Rockingham. Sir Henry Clinton was removed from his command in America and was succeeded by Sir Guy Carleton, whose humane conduct of the war while governor of Canada we have related. Carleton arrived in New York in May, 1782, with full powers to open negotiations for peace. He at once put a stop to the savage warfare of the Tories and Indians on the borders of Western New York, and opened a correspondence with Washington proposing a cessation of hostilities until a definite treaty of peace could be arranged.

Five commissioners were appointed by Congress to conclude a peace with Great Britain. They were John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, John Jay, Henry Laurens, who had just been released from the tower of London, where he had been kept a prisoner for about a year, and Thomas Jefferson. Mr. Jefferson was unable to leave America. Five commissioners were appointed by Great Britain to treat with "certain colonies" named in their instructions.

The commissioners from the two countries met at Paris, but the American commissioners refused to open negotiations except in the name of the

"United States of America." This right was acknowledged by Great Britain, and, on the 30th of November, 1782, a preliminary treaty was signed, which was ratified by Congress in April, 1783. This treaty could not be final, because, by the terms of the alliance between the United States and France, neither party could make a separate treaty of peace with England. In January, 1783, France and Great Britain agreed upon terms of peace, and, on the 3d of September, 1783, a final treaty of peace was signed by all the nations who had engaged in the war—by the United States, France, Spain and Holland on the one side, and Great Britain on the other.

Close of Hostilities Proclaimed.

In the spring of 1783 the news of the signing of the preliminary treaty of peace was received in America, and was officially communicated to the nation in a proclamation by Congress. On the 19th of April, 1783, just eight years from the commencement of the war at Lexington, the close of hostilities was proclaimed, in general orders, to the army at Newburg. A general exchange of prisoners followed, and large numbers of Tories were obliged to leave the country, as they feared to remain after the protection of the British forces was withdrawn. They emigrated chiefly to Canada, Nova Scotia, and the West Indies.

On the 2d of December, Washington issued a farewell address to the army, and, on the 4th of that month, took leave of the officers at New York. He then proceeded to Annapolis, where Congress was in session, and, on the 23d of December, under circumstances of great solemnity, resigned his commission to that body; and, after receiving the thanks of Congress for the able and faithful manner in which he had discharged the task intrusted to him, retired to his home at Mount Vernon, which he had not visited for eight years, except for a few hours, while on his way to attack Cornwallis at Yorktown.

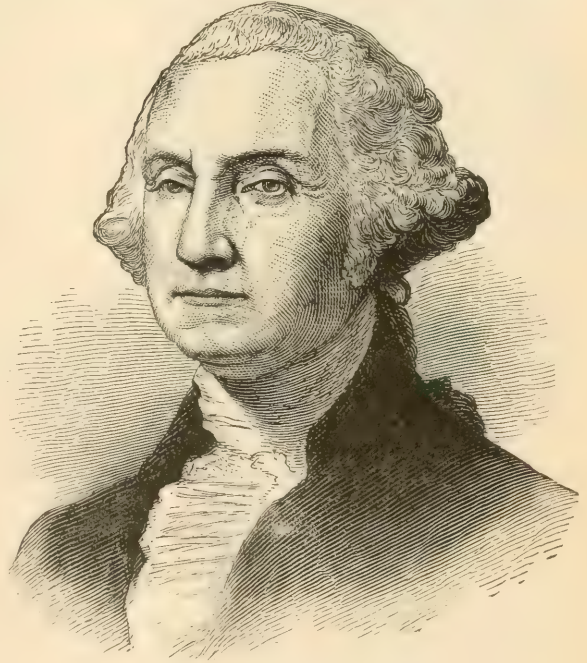
CHAPTER XXIV.

THE NEW REPUBLIC.

THE Constitution of the United States was adopted and went into operation on the fourth of March, 1789. Elections were held for President and Vice-President of the United States, and for members of Congress. New York was named as the seat of the new government. The fourth of March, 1789, was ushered in with a public demonstration at New York; but a sufficient number of members of Congress to form a quorum for the transaction of business did not arrive until the thirtieth of March. On the sixth of April the electoral votes were counted, and it was found that George Washington had been unanimously chosen first President of the United States, and John Adams Vice-President.

Commerce now began to show signs of a great revival from the stagnation and loss caused by the war. The duties levied upon foreign goods gave to domestic manufacturers an opportunity to place themselves upon a firmer foundation. Very great improvements were made in the character of American manufactures. In New England the weaving of cotton and woolen goods was begun, in a feeble way it is true, but the foundation was laid of that great industry which has since been a constant and growing source of wealth to that section.

In 1790 the first census of the United States was taken, and showed the population to be 3,929,827 souls.



GEORGE WASHINGTON.

The Indians of the northwest had been very troublesome for some time. The British agents in that region incited them to hostility against the United States, and urged them to claim the Ohio as their southern and eastern boundary. They committed innumerable outrages along this river and almost put a stop to the trade upon its waters by attacking and plundering the flat-boats of the emigrants and traders which were constantly descending the river. The general government resolved to put a stop to their outrages, and General Harmer was sent against them in 1790, but was soon defeated with great loss.



INDIAN CHILD IN CRADLE.

In 1791 General St. Clair, the governor of the northwest territory, was placed in command of an expedition against the savages. He set out from Fort Washington, now Cincinnati, about the middle of September, with a force of two thousand men, but near the headwaters of the Wabash was surprised and defeated by an Indian force under Little Turtle, a famous chief of the Miamis. The wreck of his army fled to Fort Washington, and the frontier was once more defenceless.

President Washington now placed Gen. Anthony Wayne in command of the forces destined to operate against the Indians. With his usual energy Wayne assembled his army at Fort Washington, and in the summer of 1794 marched into the Indian country, laid it waste and defeated the Indian tribes in the battle of the Maumee, on the twentieth of August. In the summer of 1795 the Indians, cowed by their defeat and alarmed by the withdrawal of the British from the frontier posts, met General Wayne at his camp on the Miami and entered into a treaty with the United States, by which they ceded all the eastern and southern part of Ohio to the whites and themselves withdrew farther westward.

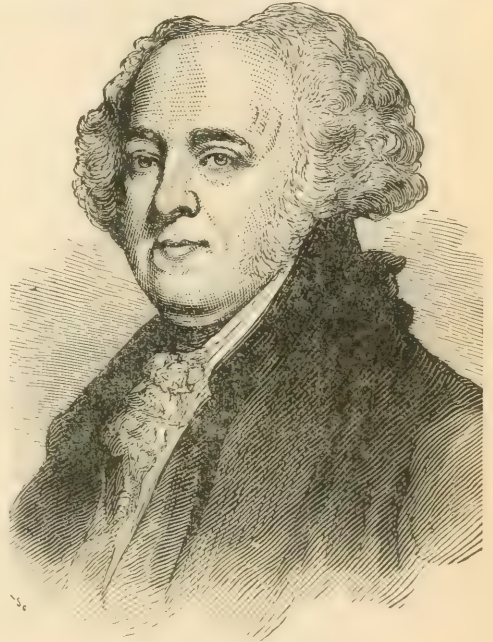
In the elections of 1792 Washington and Adams were chosen President and Vice-President of the United States, for a second term of four years. The disputes, which had been begun by the adoption of the Consti-

tution, had been continued during the first term of Washington's presidency, and had given rise to two political parties—the Federalists, or those who favor a strong national government, and who supported the administration; and the Anti-Federalists, who opposed the policy of the administration.

At the close of his term of office, Washington withdrew to his home at Mount Vernon, to enjoy the repose he had so well earned, and which was so grateful to him. His administration had been eminently successful. When he entered upon the duties of the Presidency, the government was new and untried, and its best friends doubted its ability to exist long; the finances were in confusion, and the country was burdened with debt; the disputes with Great Britain threatened to involve the country in a new war; and the authority of the general government was uncertain and scarcely recognized.

When he left office the state of affairs was changed. The government had been severely tested, and had been found equal to any demand made upon it; the finances had been placed upon a safe and healthy footing, and the debt of the country had been adjusted to the satisfaction of all parties concerned in it. The disputes with England had been arranged, and the country, no longer threatened with war, was free to devote its energies to its improvement. Industry and commerce were growing rapidly. The exports from the United States had risen from nineteen millions to over fifty-six millions of dollars, and the imports had increased in nearly the same proportion. The rule of non-interference in European quarrels, and of cultivating friendly relations with all the world, had become the settled policy of the republic, and its wisdom had been amply vindicated. The progress of the republic, during the eight years of Washington's administration, was indeed gratifying, and gave promise of a brilliant future.

On the 4th of March, 1797, John Adams was inaugurated President of the United States, and Thomas Jefferson took the oath of office as Vice-



JOHN ADAMS.

President. Mr. Adams was in the sixty-second year of his age, and in the full vigor of health and intellect. He made no changes in the cabinet left by President Washington, and the policy of his administration corresponded throughout with that of his great predecessor. He came into office at a time when this policy was to be subjected to the severest test, and was to be triumphantly vindicated by the trial. Mr. Adams began his official career with the declaration of his "determination to maintain peace and inviolate faith with all nations, and neutrality and impartiality with the belligerent powers of Europe."

The second census of the United States, taken in 1800, showed the population of the country to be 5,319,762 souls.

Author of the Declaration of Independence.

Thomas Jefferson, the third President of the United States, was inaugurated at the new capitol, in the city of Washington, on the 4th of March, 1801. He was in his fifty-eighth year, and had long been regarded as one of the most illustrious men in America. He was the author of the Declaration of Independence, had represented the country as minister to France, had served in the cabinet of General Washington as Secretary of State, and had filled the high office of Vice-President during the administration of Mr. Adams.

He was the founder of the Democratic party, and was regarded by it with an enthusiastic devotion, which could see no flaw in his character. By the Federalists he was denounced with intense bitterness as an enemy of organized government. He was unquestionably a believer in the largest freedom possible to man, but he was too deeply versed in the lessons of statesmanship, and was too pure a patriot, to entertain for a moment the levelling principles with which his enemies charged him. Under him the government of the republic suffered no diminution of strength, but his administration was a gain to the country.

Mr. Jefferson had long been anxious to obtain for the United States the country bordering the lower Mississippi, as he was convinced that the power holding the mouth of that river must of necessity control the great valley through which it flows. Accordingly, Robert R. Livingston, the American minister at Paris, was ordered to open negotiations with the French government for the purchase of Louisiana.

He found this an easier task than he had expected, for Napoleon, who

was on the eve of a great European war, was much in need of money, and was by no means anxious to add to his troubles by being obliged to defend Louisiana. A bargain was soon concluded by which the United States became the possessors of the whole region of Louisiana, from the Mississippi to the Pacific, embracing an area of over a million square miles.

The United States paid to France the sum of \$15,000,000 for this immense region, and guaranteed to the then inhabitants all the rights of American citizens. "This accession of territory," said Napoleon upon the completion of this very great purchase "strengthens forever the



THOMAS JEFFERSON.

power of the United States, and I have just given to England a maritime rival that will sooner or later humble her pride."

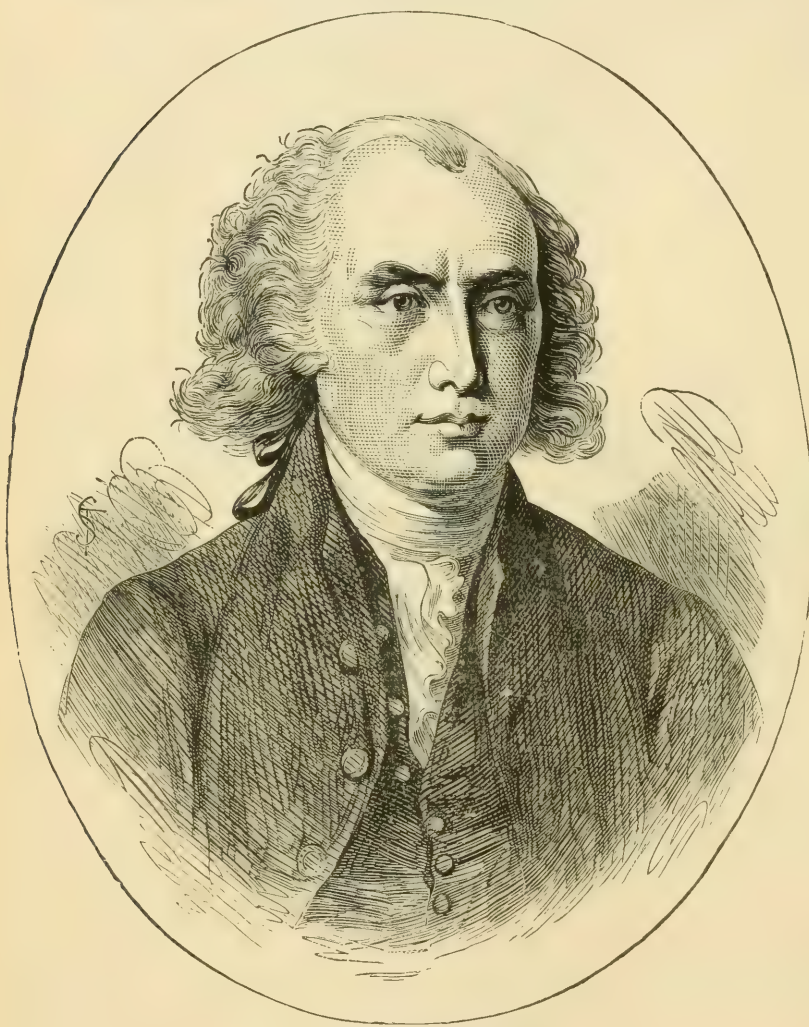
James Madison, the fourth president of the United States, was inaugurated at Washington on the 4th of March, 1809. He was in the fifty-eighth year of his age, and had long been one of the most prominent men in the Union. He had borne a distinguished part in the Convention of 1787, and was the author of the Virginia resolutions of 1786, which brought about

the assembling of this Convention. He had entered the Convention as one of the most prominent leaders of the National party, which favored the consolidation of the States into one distinct and supreme nation, and had acted with Randolph, Hamilton, Wilson, Morris, and King, in seeking to bring about such a result.

When it was found impossible to carry out this plan Mr. Madison gave

his cordial support to the system which was finally adopted by the Convention; and while the constitution was under discussion by the states, he united with Hamilton and Jay in earnestly recommending the adoption of the constitution by the states, in a series of able articles, to which the general title of the "Federalist" was given.

The Indians of the northwest were becoming very troublesome, and their aggressions were attributed to the instigation of the British in Canada. Tecumseh, a



JAMES MADISON.

Shawnee chief of unusual abilities, attempted to unite the Indians of the continent in a grand effort against the Americans, and for this purpose passed from tribe to tribe, from the great lakes to the Gulf of Mexico, and urged them to take up the hatchet. He was assisted by his twin brother,

Elskwatawa, generally called "the Prophet," who appealed to the superstitious fears of the savages by his jugglery.

The federal government determined to strike a blow at the savages before their plans for union could be brought to a successful issue. In the autumn of 1811 Major-General William Henry Harrison, then governor of Indiana Territory, was sent to operate against the tribes on the Wabash. He took with him a body of Kentucky and Indiana militia, and one regiment of regiment troops. On the 6th of November he arrived at the junction of the Tippecanoe and Wabash Rivers, near the town of the Prophet, the brother of Tecumseh.

Furious Attack on the American Camp.

The Prophet sent several of the principal Indian chiefs to meet Harrison with offers of submission. They informed him that the Prophet would come into camp the next day, and make a treaty with him. Harrison suspected that the purpose of the Indians was simply to gain time, and that they would probably seek to surprise him during the night, and accordingly caused his men to bivouac on their arms that night. His precautions were well taken. About four o'clock on the morning of November 7th the savages made a furious attack on the American camp. They were promptly received, and after a severe conflict of several hours were put to flight. Tecumseh was not present in this engagement. General Harrison followed up this victory by destroying the Prophet's town, and building some forts for the protection of the country. The battle of Tippecanoe quieted the Indians of the northwest for a while, but greatly increased the desire of the people of that region for war with England.

Disagreements having arisen between this country and Great Britain, our government demanded redress; otherwise war would be declared. On the 30th of May, 1812, the British minister at Washington delivered to the government of the United States the final reply of his government to the demands of this country in the questions at issue between them. This *ultimatum* was submitted to Congress by the President on the 1st of June, accompanied by a message in which he recapitulated the wrongs inflicted by Great Britain upon this country, her violations of the rights of neutrals, her impressment of American seamen, her seizures of American ships and her refusal to enter into any equitable arrangement for the settlement of these questions. The determination of Great Britain to drive American

commerce from the seas was evident, and the question was submitted to Congress whether the United States should continue to submit to these outrages or should resort to war to protect their rights.

After a debate of several days an act declaring war against Great Britain was passed by Congress and was approved by the President on the 18th of June, 1812. On the 19th the President issued a proclamation



A PIONEER HERO'S FIGHT WITH THE SAVAGES.

declaring that war existed between the United States and Great Britain and her dependencies.

In the first campaign, including the year 1812, the results were disastrous to the Americans. The attempts to invade Canada had ended with the surrender of Detroit and the defeat at Queenstown. A large part of the frontier was lost, and over twenty-five hundred men had been captured by the enemy. The failures had aroused the discontent of a considerable portion of the people of the Union, and the opposition of the New England States to the war was greatly increased. Matters would have seemed hopeless had not the navy, which had been the most neglected branch of the public service, redeemed the national honor by a series of brilliant successes.

It was the intention of the government at the outset of the war to retain the vessels of the navy in the ports of the country to assist in the defence of the harbors of the United States. The fear was openly expressed that if these vessels should venture to put to sea they would certainly be captured by the British cruisers. The officers of the navy were indignant at these insinuations, and as soon as the news of the declaration of war was received at New York several of the vessels of war in that port put to sea at once to avoid the orders which their commanders feared were on the way to detain them in port, and also for the purpose of making a dash at the Jamaica fleet, which was on its way to England. They followed this fleet to the entrance of the British Channel, but without overtaking it.

A British squadron sailed from Halifax to cruise off the port of New York. The American frigate "Constitution," Captain Hull, while endeavoring to enter New York, fell in with this squadron, and was chased by it for four days. Her escape was due entirely to the superior skill of her officers and the energy of her crew. The chase was one of the most remarkable in history, and the escape of the American frigate won great credit for Captain Hull. Failing to reach New York, Hull sailed for Boston, and reached that port in safety. Remaining there a few days, he put to sea again, just in time to avoid orders from Washington to remain in port.

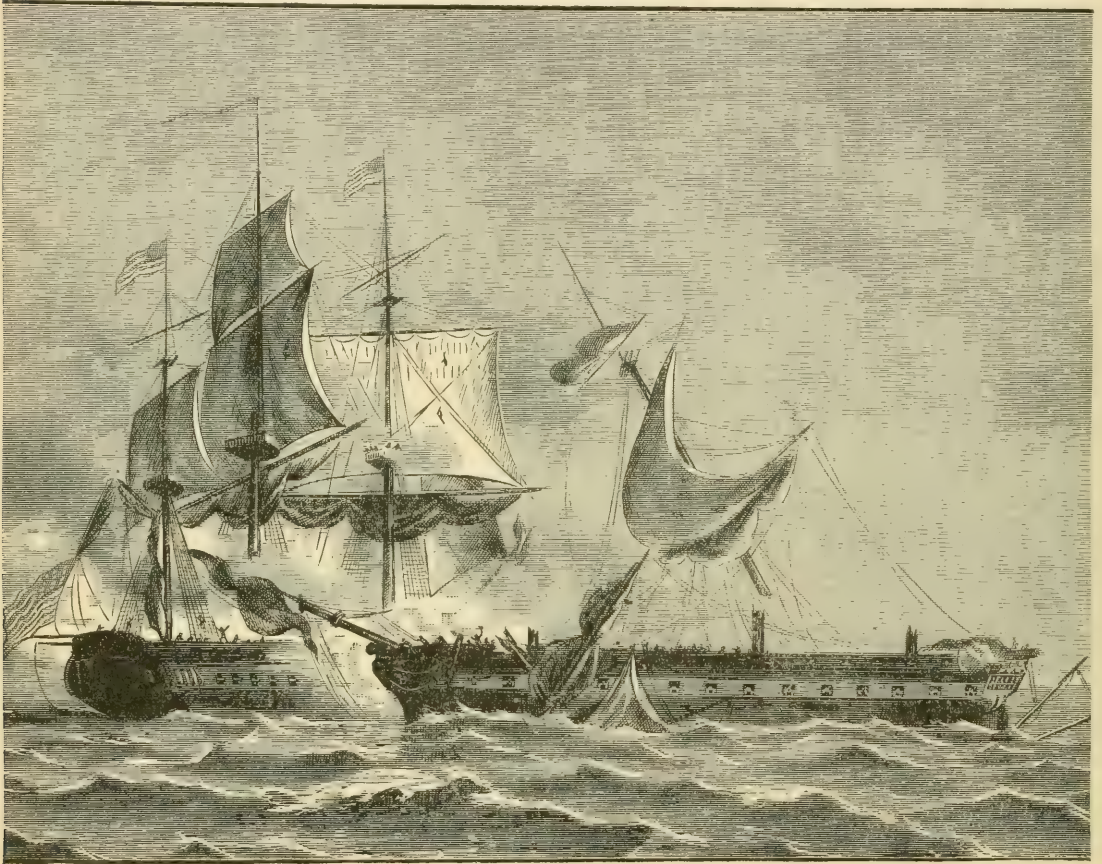
Spirited Naval Engagements.

In July the American frigate "Essex" captured a transport filled with British soldiers, and a few days later encountered the British sloop of war "Alert," which mistook her for a merchantman. The "Essex" suffered her to approach, and then opened a rapid fire upon her, which soon disabled her and forced her to surrender.

The "Constitution" sailed from Boston to the northeast. On the 19th of August, while cruising off the mouth of the St. Lawrence, she fell in with the British frigate "Guerriere," Captain Dacres, one of the vessels that had chased her during the previous month. The "Guerriere" immediately stood towards her, and both vessels prepared for action. The English commander opened his fire at long range, but Captain Hull refused to reply until he had gotten his ship into a favorable position, and for an hour and a half he manœuvred in silence, under a heavy fire from the British frigate.

At length, having got within pistol shot of her adversary, the "Con-

stitution" opened a terrible fire upon her, and poured in her broadsides with such effect that the "Guerriere" struck her colors in thirty minutes. The "Guerriere" lost seventy-nine men killed and wounded, while the loss of the "Constitution" was but seven men. The "Guerriere" was so much injured in the fight that she could not be carried into port, and Hull had her burned.



CAPTURE OF THE "GUERRIERE" BY THE "CONSTITUTION."

The "Constitution" then returned to Boston with her prisoners, and was received with an ovation. It was the first time in half a century that a British frigate had struck her flag in a fair fight, and the victory was hailed with delight in all parts of the country.

On the 18th of October the American sloop-of-war "Wasp," eighteen, Captain Jones, met the British brig "Frolic," twenty-two, convoying six merchantmen. In order to give her convoy a chance to escape, the

"Frolic" shortened sail and awaited the approach of the "Wasp." The "Wasp" poured a raking fire into her antagonist and then boarded her. The boarders found the deck of the "Frolic" covered with the dead. Only one man remained unhurt, and he stood gallantly at his post at the wheel. Before the prize could be secured the British frigate "Poictiers," 74, hove in sight and captured both vessels. The "Wasp" lost eight men in the engagement; the "Frolic" eighty.



THE "WASP" BOARDING THE "FROLIC."

These victories aroused the greatest enthusiasm in the United States. The great disparity in the losses sustained by the respective combatants made it evident to both nations that the American ships had been better handled in every engagement. The British endeavored to account for the American successes by declaring that the United States vessels were seventy-fours in disguise, or that they carried heavier guns than their adversaries; but the thinking men of both countries saw that they had been won by the superior skill of the American officers.

It was clear that nothing of importance could be accomplished on land as long as the British held Lake Erie. Oliver Hazard Perry, a young lieutenant of the United States navy, volunteered to win back the lake from



PERRY'S VICTORY ON LAKE ERIE.

sisted of six vessels, carrying sixty-three guns. Each carried a complement of somewhere near five hundred men.

the enemy, who held it with a small squadron under Capt. Barclay. By extraordinary exertions, Perry built and equipped a fleet at Presque Isle, now Erie. It consisted of nine vessels of various sizes, from one carrying twenty-five guns down to one which carried one gun. Its total armament amounted to fifty-five guns. It was manned by a small force of sailors from the east, and by a large number of volunteers from General Harrison's army. As soon as his fleet was in proper condition, Perry stood out into the lake to seek the enemy. The British squadron con-

The two squadrons soon encountered each other, and on the 10th of September a severe battle was fought between them, at the western end of the lake. Perry, at the opening of the fight, displayed a flag from his vessel, bearing the words of the brave Lawrence, "Don't give up the ship." It was greeted with cheers from the men. During the battle, the American flag-ship, the "Lawrence," was disabled, and Perry passed in an open boat, under a heavy fire, to the "Niagara," the next largest ship, and transferred his flag to her. The result was that the British fleet was defeated, and forced to surrender. Perry announced his victory to General Harrison in the following characteristic message: "We have met the enemy and they are ours. Two ships, one brig, a schooner, and a sloop."

Death of the Famous Chief Tecumseh.

This victory was of the highest importance to the Americans. It gave them the command of Lake Erie, and opened the way to Canada. Harrison hastened to profit by it, and advanced rapidly towards Detroit and Malden. Proctor abandoned those places, and retreated with his own forces, and Tecumseh and his Indians, into Canada. At Detroit Harrison was joined by thirty-five hundred mounted Kentuckians, under the aged Governor Shelby, one of the heroes of King's Mountain, and Col. Richard M. Johnson. He at once entered Canada in pursuit of Proctor, and, by a forced march of sixty miles, came up with him on the banks of the Thames, on October 5th. A short, but desperate battle ensued, in which Tecumseh was killed, and his Indians put to flight. The British were routed, and Proctor saved himself only by the speed of his horse. By these successes the Americans won back Michigan Territory, and for the present gave peace and security to the northwestern frontier. The second war with Great Britain closed with victory for the American arms, and a treaty of peace between the two countries was signed on the 14th of December, 1814.

James Monroe was inaugurated President of the United States, at Washington, on the 4th of March, 1817. He had served during the revolution in the army of the United States, and had entered Congress soon after the formation of the government as a representative from Virginia, and had won great credit by his services in that body. He had been secretary of state during Mr. Madison's administration, and increased his fame by his discharge of the difficult and delicate duties of this position.

In his inaugural address he declared his intention to administer the

government in accordance with the principles of Washington, and the sentiments of this document were warmly applauded throughout the country by Federalists as well as Democrats. The administration of Mr. Monroe covered a period generally known in our political history as "the era of

good feeling." Party lines were almost blotted out, and the people of the country were more united than at any previous or subsequent period in the support of national measures. A few months after his inauguration President Monroe made a tour through the Eastern States. He was everywhere received with marked attention, and the Federalist city of Boston entertained him with the cordial hospitality which is one of her characteristics.

The last year of Mr. Monroe's administration was marked by an advent of the



JAMES MONROE.

deepest interest to the whole country. In 1824 the venerable Marquis de Lafayette came to the United States at the express invitation of Congress to visit the nation whose freedom he had helped to achieve. He reached New York on the 13th of August, and was received with enthusiasm. He travelled through all the States, and was everywhere received with demonstrations of respect and affection, and he was given abundant evidence in all parts of the country that the nation cherished

with love and pride the memory of the generous stranger who came to its aid in its darkest hour of trial.

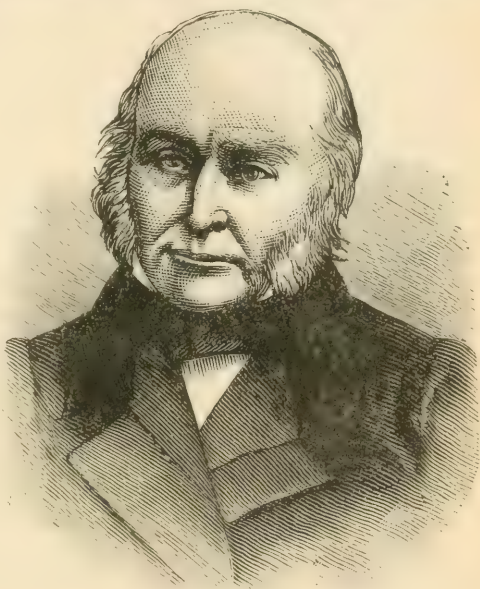
Returning to Washington during the session of Congress, Lafayette spent several weeks there. Congress, as a token of the gratitude of the nation for his services, voted him a township of land and the sum of two hundred thousand dollars. The frigate "Brandywine," just finished, was appointed to convey him back to France, a delicate compliment, as the vessel was named after the stream on whose banks Lafayette fought his first battle and was wounded in the cause of American independence. At the time of his visit to the United States Lafayette was nearly seventy years old.

In the fall of 1824 the Presidential election was held amid great political excitement. The "era of good feeling" was at an end, and party spirit ran high. There were four candidates in the field, Mr. Monroe having declined a third term: Andrew Jackson, John Quincy Adams, William H. Crawford and Henry Clay.

None of these received a popular majority, and the election was thrown into the House of Representatives in Congress, and resulted in the choice of John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts, as President of the United States. John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, had been chosen Vice-President by the popular vote.

On the 4th of March, 1825, John Quincy Adams was inaugurated President of the United States. He was the son of John Adams, the second President of the republic, and was in his fifty-eighth year. He was a man of great natural ability, of strong personal character, and of unbending integrity. He had been carefully educated, and was one of the most learned men in the Union.

Apart from his general education, he had received a special training in statesmanship. He had served as minister to the Netherlands, and in the same capacity at the courts of Portugal, Prussia, Russia and England, where he had maintained a high reputation. He had represented the State of Massachusetts in the Federal Senate, and had been Secretary of State



JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

in the cabinet of Mr. Monroe, during the last administration. He was, therefore, thoroughly qualified for the duties of the high office upon which he now entered.

He called to his cabinet men of marked ability, at the head of which was Henry Clay, who became Secretary of State. The administration of Mr. Adams was one of remarkable prosperity. The country was growing wealthier by the rapid increase of its agriculture, manufactures and commerce, and abroad it commanded the respect of the world. Still party spirit raged with great violence during the whole of this period.



HENRY CLAY.

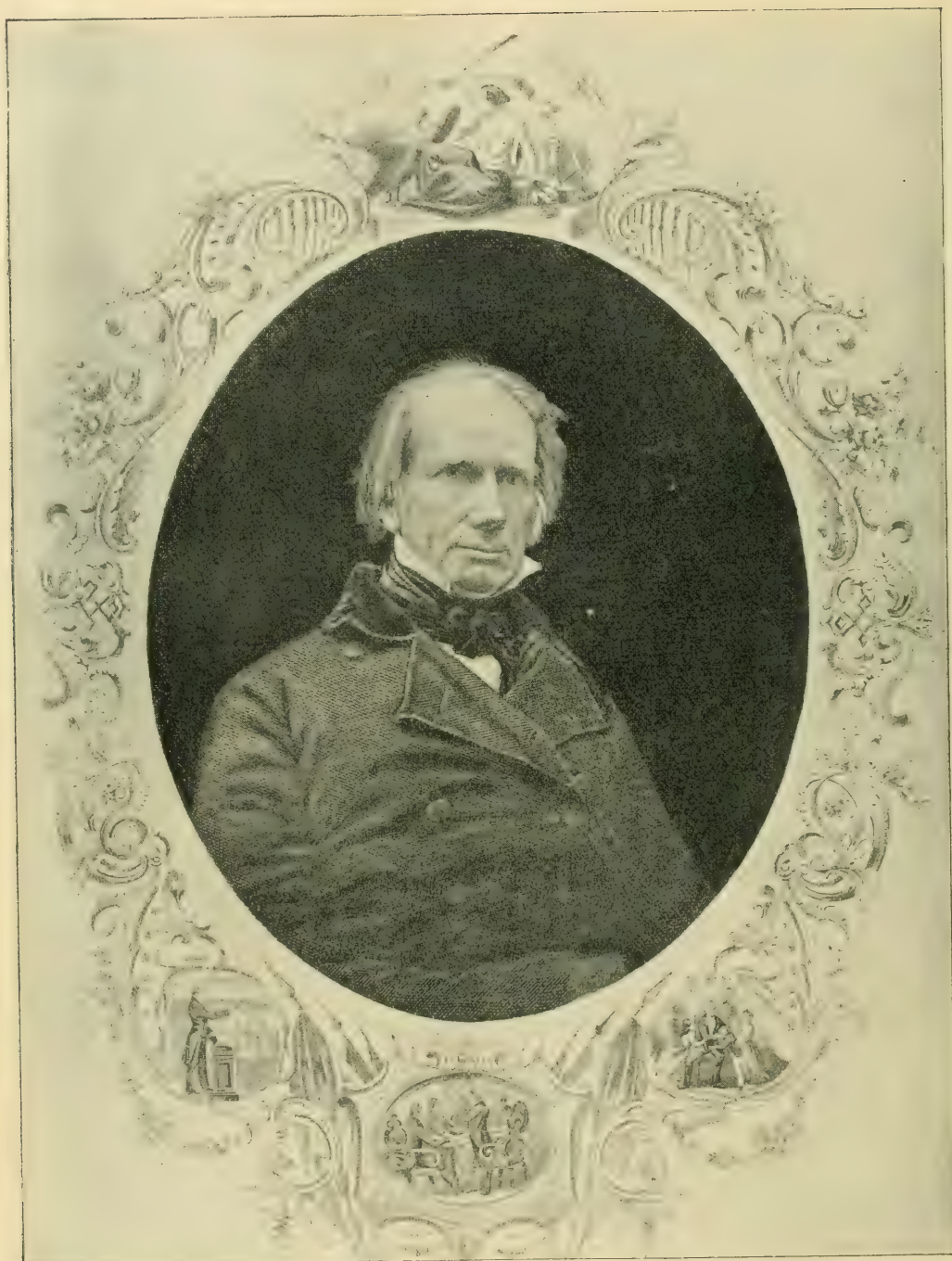
On the 4th of July, 1826, died, within a few hours of each other, two ex-Presidents of the republic—John Adams and Thomas Jefferson—the latter the author of the Declaration of Independence, and the former its most efficient supporter. Mr. Adams died at his home at Quincy, Massachusetts, at the ripe age of ninety years; Mr. Jefferson, at Monticello, his beautiful Virginian home, at the age of eighty-two. Both had filled the highest stations in the republic, and both had lived to see the country they loved take rank among

the first nations of the globe. They died on the fiftieth anniversary of American independence.

Andrew Jackson, the seventh President of the United States, was inaugurated at Washington, on the 4th of March, 1829. President Jackson was in many respects one of the most remarkable men of his day. He was of Scotch-Irish descent, and was born in North Carolina, during the controversy between the colonies and Great Britain, which preceded the Revolution. He was left fatherless at an early age, and his youth was passed amid the stirring scenes of the war for independence. At the age of thirteen, he began his career by taking part in the fight at Hanging Rock, under General Sumter.



DECATUR'S CONFLICT WITH THE ALGERINE AT TRIPOLI,



H. Cary

The home of the Jacksons was broken up and pillaged by the Tories, and the mother and her two sons became wanderers. The sons were shortly after made prisoners by the Tories, and the day after his capture Andrew Jackson was ordered by a British officer to clean his boots. He indignantly refused, and the officer struck him with the flat of his sword. The boys were at length exchanged, through the exertions of their loving mother. Both had contracted the small-pox during their captivity, and the elder son soon died of his disease.

Not long afterwards, Mrs. Jackson, with a few other ladies, went to Charleston to minister to the wants of the American prisoners of war, confined there by the British. A fever was raging among these unfortunates at the time, and Mrs. Jackson was soon numbered among its victims. Thus,



ANDREW JACKSON.

at the age of fifteen, Andrew Jackson was left alone in the world without a relative. Though young in years, he had been greatly matured in character by his trials. Even at this early age he was generous to a fault to his friends, and immovable in his resolutions when once formed.

A few years later he removed to Tennessee, then a Territory, and,

upon the admission of the State into the Union, was elected as her first representative in Congress. His brilliant victory over the British at New Orleans made him one of the most noted men of the day, and his prompt and decisive measures against the Spaniards in Florida, during Mr. Monroe's administration, greatly added to his reputation.

General Jackson Elected President.

During the administration of John Adams, General Jackson occupied a seat in the United States Senate, and gave a cordial support to the principles of Mr. Jefferson. Resigning his seat in the Senate before the close of his term, he was elected one of the judges of the Supreme Court of Tennessee. The election of General Jackson to the Presidency was regarded with some anxiety, for though his merits as a soldier were conceded, it was feared by many that his known imperiousness of will and his inflexibility of purpose would seriously disqualify him for the delicate duties of the Presidency. Nature had made him a ruler, however, and his administration was marked by the fearless energy that characterized every act of his life, and was on the whole successful and satisfactory to the great majority of his countrymen.

The tariff question now engaged the attention of the country once more. The manufacturing interests were still struggling against foreign competition, and it was the opinion of the Eastern and Middle States that the general government should protect them by the imposition of high duties upon products of foreign countries imported into the Union. The south was almost a unit in its opposition to a high tariff. Being, as we have said, an agricultural section, its interests demanded a free market, and it wished to avail itself of the privilege of purchasing where it could buy cheapest. The south and the west were the markets of the east, and the interests of that section demanded the exclusion of foreign competition in supplying these markets.

In July, 1827, a convention of manufacturers was held at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, and a memorial was adopted praying Congress to increase the duties on foreign goods to an extent which would protect American industry. When Congress met in December, 1827, the protective policy was the most important topic of the day. It was warmly discussed in Congress and throughout the country. The interests of New England were championed by the matchless eloquence of Daniel Webster, who claimed

that, as the adoption of the protective policy by the government had forced New England to turn her energies to manufacturers, the government was bound to protect her against competition. After a very able and exhaustive discussion the tariff bill was passed by the House on the fifteenth of April, 1828, and was approved by the President a little later. It was termed by its opponents the "Bill of Abominations."

The Presidential election was held in the fall of 1836. General Jackson having declined to be a candidate for a third term, the Democratic party supported Martin Van Buren for President, and Richard M. Johnson, of Kentucky, for Vice-President. Mr. Van Buren was elected by a large majority; but the electors having failed to make a choice of a candidate for Vice-President, that task devolved upon the Senate, which elected Colonel Richard M. Johnson by a majority of seventeen votes.



DANIEL WEBSTER.

Martin Van Buren, the new President, entered upon the duties of his office on the 4th of March, 1837. He was in his fifty-fifth year, and had occupied many distinguished positions in public life. He had represented the State of New York in the Senate of the United States, and had been governor of that State. He had been minister to England, had been made Secretary of State at the commencement of General Jackson's first term, and had been elected Vice-President of the United States at the period of Jackson's re-election.

The extraordinary prosperity which had prevailed throughout the nation during the last year of Jackson's term came to a sudden end almost immediately after the inauguration of Mr. Van Buren. For some time past a reckless spirit of speculation had engrossed the nation, and had led to excessive banking and the issuing of paper money to an extent far beyond the necessities of the country.

The distress of the country was very great. Hundreds of thousands of

laborers were thrown out of employment, and business of all kinds was much depressed. The government, which a few months before had been out of debt and in possession of a surplus of forty millions, now found itself unable to provide funds for its ordinary expenses. The President was com-

pelled to summon an extra session of Congress, that met on the 4th of September, 1837. The President in his message attributed the confused condition of the country to the excessive issues of bank-notes, the great fire in New York in 1835, and the reckless speculations of the people for several years past. He suggested no special legislation for the relief of these troubles, as he regarded such a course as beyond the constitutional authority of the general government. Indeed, the govern-



MARTIN VAN BUREN.

ment could do but little to restore public confidence; that was the task of the people themselves, and it was not accomplished for several years.

On the 4th of March, 1841, William Henry Harrison was inaugurated President of the United States at Washington, in the presence of an immense concourse of citizens from all parts of the Union. He was in his sixty-ninth year, and had spent forty years of his life in the public service. His

services during the Indian hostilities which preceded the War of 1812-15, and his exploits during that war, have been related. He had served as governor of Indiana Territory, and had been both a member of Congress and a senator of the United States.

He was a man of pure life and earnest character, and the certainty of a change of policy in the measures of the federal government had caused the people of the country to look forward to his administration with hope and confidence. He began by calling to seats in his cabinet men of prominence and ability. At the head of the cabinet he placed Daniel Webster, as Secretary of State. The President issued a proclamation convening Congress in special session on the 31st of May, 1841. He was not destined to fulfil the hopes of his friends, however. He was suddenly seized with pneumonia, and died on the 4th of April, 1841—just one month after his inauguration.

It was the first time that a president of the United States had died in office, and a gloom was cast over the nation by the sad event. The mourning of the people was sincere, for in General Harrison the nation lost a faithful, upright and able citizen. He had spent forty years in prominent public positions, and had discharged every duty confided to him with marked ability and integrity, and at last went to his grave a poor man.



WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

"Brave old Cincinnatus! he left but his plow."

Upon the assembling of Congress, that body, "out of consideration of his expenses in removing to the seat of government, and the limited means he had left behind," appropriated the equivalent of one year's presidential salary—twenty-five thousand dollars—to Mrs. Harrison.

According to the terms of the constitution, upon the death of General Harrison, the office of president of the United States devolved upon the vice-president, John Tyler, of Virginia. Mr. Tyler was not in the city of Washington at the time of the death of his predecessor, but repaired to that city without loss of time, upon being notified of the need of his presence, and on the 6th of April took the oath of office before Judge Cranch,

chief justice of the District of Columbia. Mr. Tyler was in his fifty-second year, and had served as governor of Virginia, and as representative and senator in Congress from that state. On the 9th of April President Tyler issued an address to the people of the United States, in which there was no indication of a departure from the policy announced in the inaugural of

General Harrison. He retained the cabinet ministers of his predecessor in their respective positions.

In 1842 a series of disturbances occurred in the state of Illinois, which were but the forerunners of a more serious embarrassment to the general government at a still later period. A new religious sect had sprung up some years before in the western part of New York. They called themselves Mormons, and were founded by a most remarkable man by the name of Joseph Smith, who pro-



JOHN TYLER.

fessed to have a new revelation from God, written on plates of gold. Among the articles of the Mormon faith is one which teaches the doctrine of a plurality of wives. Feeling that the east was not favorable to their growth, the Mormons at an early day removed to the west. They settled at first in Missouri, but so exasperated the people of that state by their conduct that they were soon driven out of Missouri.

They settled in Illinois, and founded a city which they called Nauvoo, and built a temple. Their numbers increased rapidly from emigration from nearly every country in Europe. The new-comers were mainly persons of low position and without education. Conscious of their strength they raised troops, and set the authority of the State of Illinois at defiance. The State endeavored to reduce them to obedience, and their conduct, as in Missouri, turned the people against them. Several conflicts ensued between the Mormons and the authorities. In one of these Joe Smith, the prophet, and his brother, were seized and put in jail, and while lying there were murdered by the mob in July, 1844. This brought matters to a crisis, and the people of Illinois determined to drive the Mormons across the Mississippi. Nauvoo was attacked in 1845, and the Mormons were compelled to leave the State. In 1846 they bent their steps westward, and after a long and painful journey across the plains, reached the valley of Salt Lake, and established a settlement there. Out of this settlement grew the Territory of Utah.

In 1844 occurred one of the most important events in the history of the world. In 1832 Samuel F. B. Morse, a native of Massachusetts, invented the electric telegraph. He spent some years in perfecting his invention, and in 1838 applied to Congress for a small appropriation to assist him in building a line of wire to demonstrate the usefulness of his discovery. He was obliged to wait five years for a favorable answer, and it was not until he had given up all hope of receiving aid from Congress that that body, on the last day of the session of 1843, appropriated the sum of thirty thousand dollars to construct a telegraph line between Washington City and Baltimore, a distance of forty miles. The line was completed in 1844, and was successfully operated by Professor Morse. This was the first line established in the world. In the thirty-one years which have elapsed since then the use of the telegraph has become general



PROFESSOR MORSE.

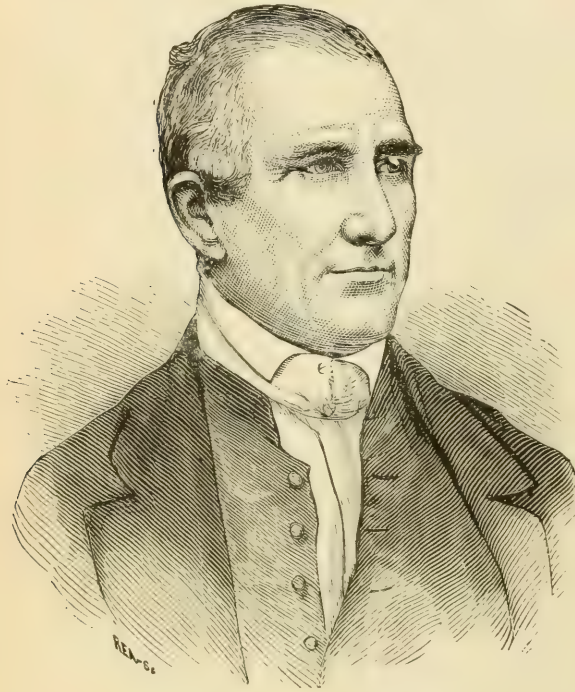
throughout the civilized world, and in the United States alone there are more than sixty thousand miles of telegraph lines in operation at the present time.

In the fall of 1844 the Presidential election took place. The leading political question of the day was the annexation of Texas. It was advocated by the administration of President Tyler and by the Democratic party. This party also made the claim of the United States to Oregon one of the

leading issues of the campaign. Its candidates were James K. Polk, of Tennessee, and George M. Dallas, of Pennsylvania. The Whig party gave their support to Henry Clay, of Kentucky, and Theodore Frelinghuysen, of New Jersey, and opposed the annexation of Texas.

During this campaign, which was one of unusual excitement, the Anti-slavery party made its appearance for the first time as a distinct political organization, and nominated James G. Birney as its candidate for the Presidency.

The result of the campaign was a decisive victory for the Democrats. This success was generally regarded as an emphatic expression of the

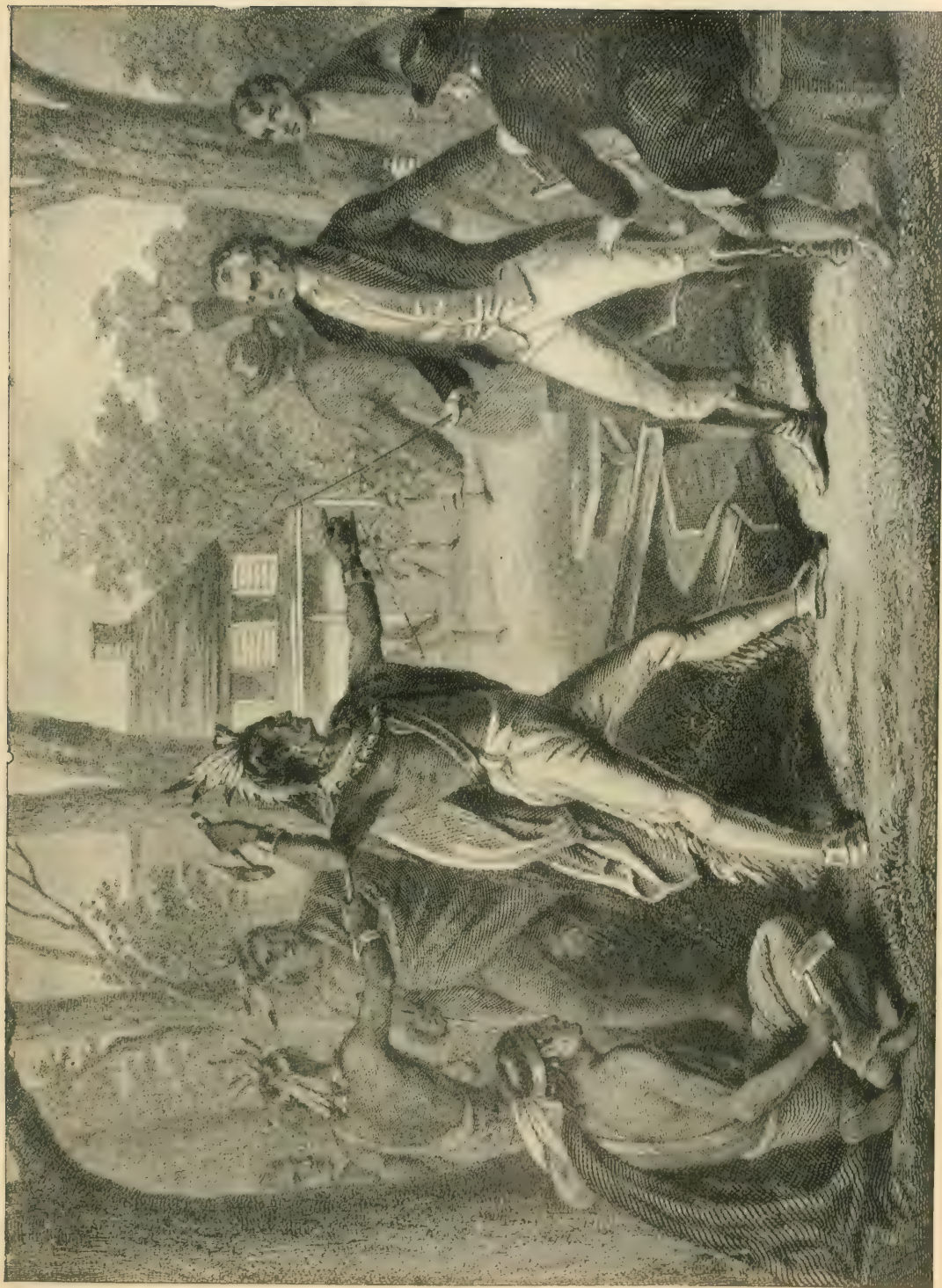


GENERAL SAM HOUSTON.

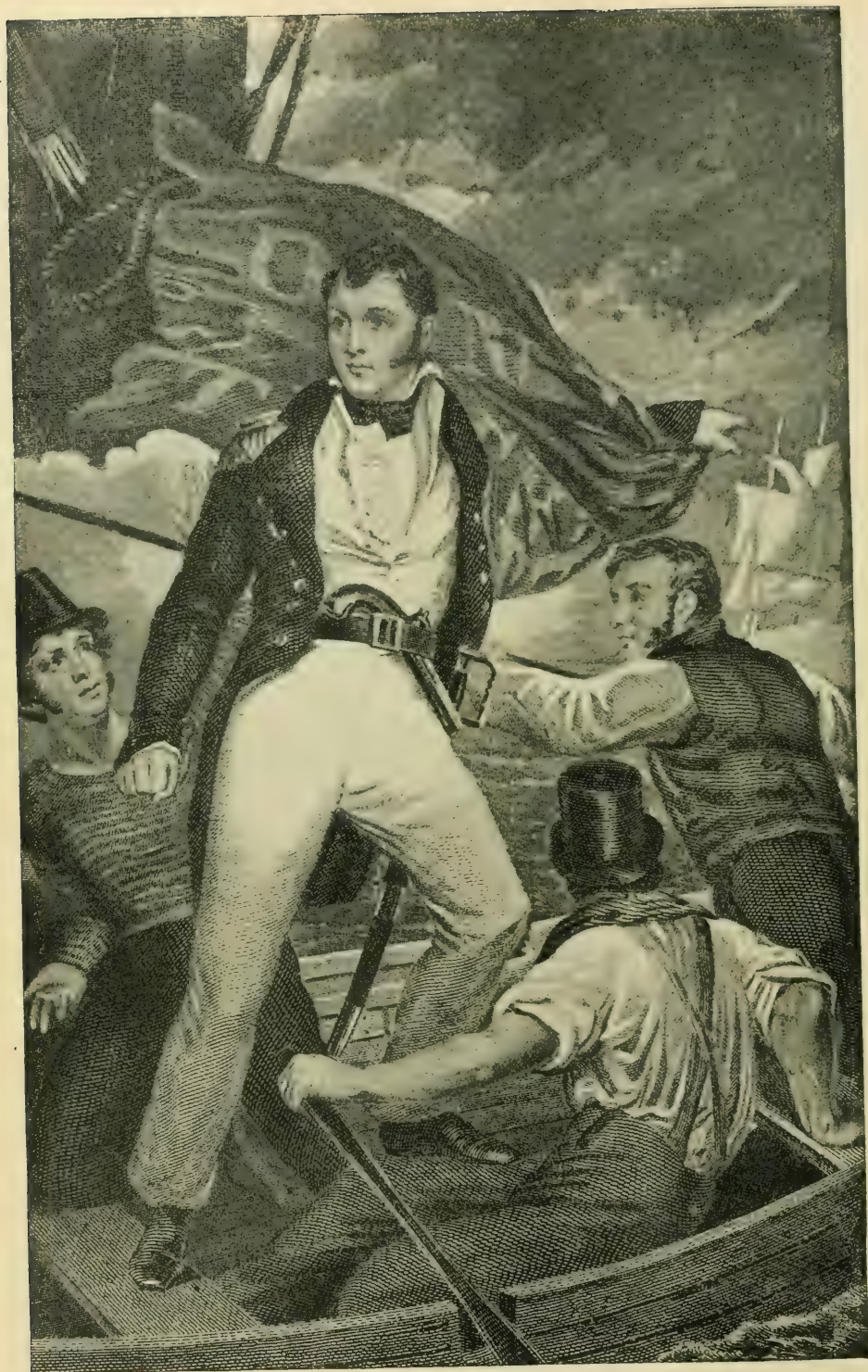
popular will respecting the Texas and Oregon questions. Mr. Birney did not receive a single electoral vote, and of the popular vote only sixty-four thousand six hundred and fifty-three ballots were cast for him.

One of the leading men in Texas at this time, and in fact for many years, was General Sam Houston, whose popularity assured him the most eminent positions both as governor of his adopted state and senator at Washington. He commanded the Texan army in a revolt against Mexico and gained a brilliant victory.

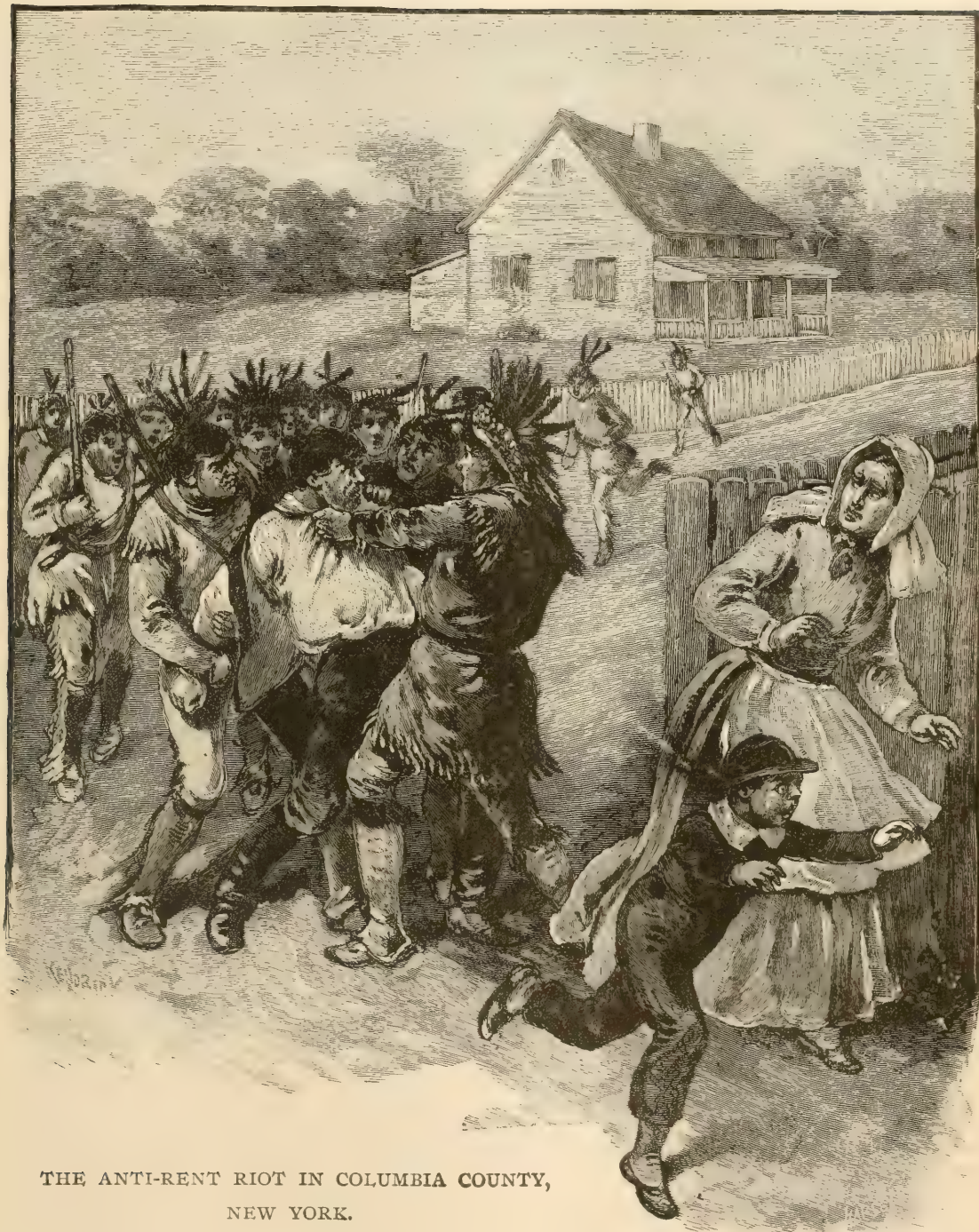
An alarming tendency to anarchy was experienced in the anti-rent disturbances in the State of New York in 1844. In the early history of this State certain settlers received patents of considerable portions of land—



GEN HARRISON AND TECUMSEH.



COMMODORE PERRY AT THE BATTLE ON LAKE ERIE.



THE ANTI-RENT RIOT IN COLUMBIA COUNTY,
NEW YORK.

of which that of Van Rensselaer was the most extensive—comprehending the greater part of Albany and Rensselaer Counties. These lands were divided into farms containing from 160 to 100 acres, and leased in perpetuity, on the following conditions: The tenant must each year pay to the landlord a quantity of wheat, from $22\frac{1}{2}$ bushels to 10, with four fat fowls and a day's service with horses and wagon. If the tenant sold his lease, the landlord was entitled to one-quarter of the purchase-money.

In process of time the tenants began to consider these legal conditions as anti-republican—a relic of feudal tyranny. The excellent Stephen Van Rensselaer, who came into possession of the patent in 1785, had, in the kindness of his nature, omitted to exact his legal rights; and \$200,000 back rent had accrued—which he, dying in 1840, appropriated by will. The tenants murmured when called on to pay it, and sheriffs, in attempting to execute legal precepts, were forcibly resisted. An ineffectual attempt to put down these disorders was made on the part of the State authorities by a military movement, called in derision “the Heldeberg war.”

Mounted Bands Disguised as Indians.

In the summer of 1844 the anti-rent disturbances broke out with great violence in the eastern towns of Rensselaer, and on the Livingston manor, in Columbia County. Extensive associations were formed by the anti-renters to resist the laws. They kept armed and mounted bands, disguised as Indians, scouring the country; and the traveler as he met them, issuing from some dark wood, with their hideous masks and gaudy calicoes, was required, on penalty of insult, to say, “Down with the rent.” These lawless rangers forcibly entered houses, took men from their homes, and tarred and feathered or otherwise maltreated them. In Rensselaer County, at noonday, a man was killed where about fifty “Indians” were present—some of whom were afterwards arraigned, when they swore that they knew nothing of the murder. Sometimes 1,000 of these disguised anarchists were assembled in one body. Similar disturbances occurred in Delaware County. At length Steele, a deputy-sheriff, was murdered in the execution of his official duty, and his murderers were apprehended.

Meanwhile Silas Wright was chosen governor of the State. Much does his country owe him for the wisdom and firmness of the measures by which public order was restored. On the 27th of August he proclaimed the County of Delaware in a state of insurrection. Resolute men were

made sheriffs, and competent military aid afforded them. Leading anti-renters were taken, brought to trial, and imprisoned. The murderers of Steele were condemned to death—but their punishment was commuted to that of perpetual confinement. On the 27th of January, 1847, Governor Young, the successor of Mr. Wright, by his proclamation, released from the State's prison the whole number of eighteen, who had been committed for anti-rent offences.

The inauguration of James K. Polk as President of the United States took place on the fourth of March, 1845. He had served the country as governor of the State of Tennessee, and for fourteen years had been a member of the House of Representatives in Congress from that State, and had been several times chosen speaker of that body. His cabinet was selected from the first men of his party.

In 1845 the government of the United States sent an ambassador to Mexico to settle the boundaries, and arrange any difficulties that existed between the two countries; but, on his arrival, the Mexican government refused to receive him. In the meantime the American army had been ordered to march to the Rio Grande, and in 1846 hostilities commenced between the two countries.

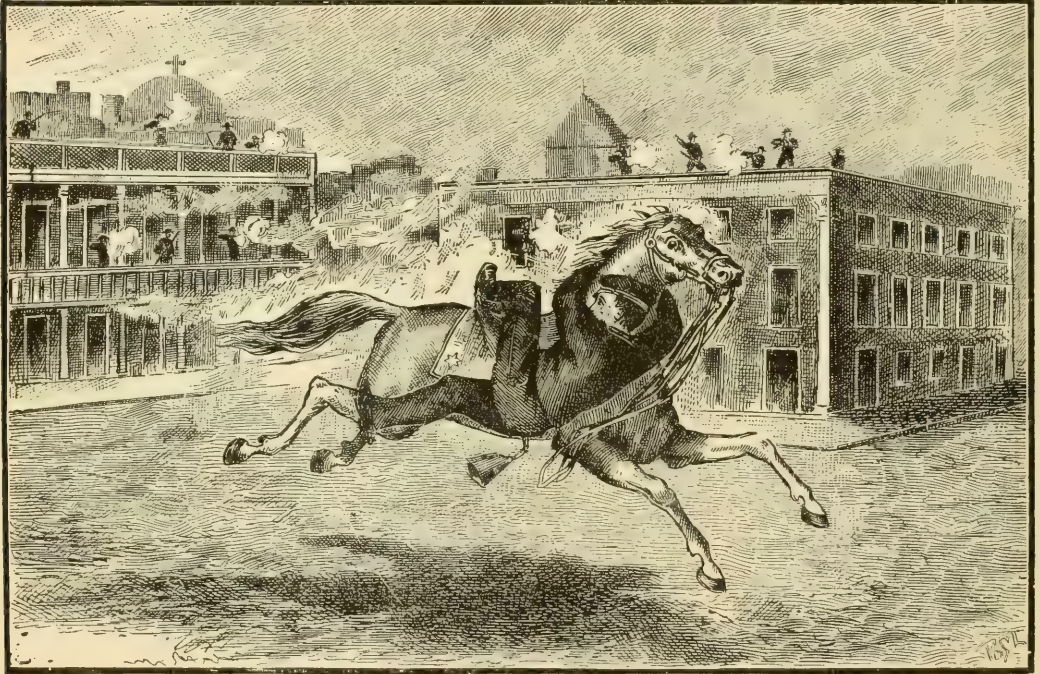
Mexico claimed that the limits of Texas properly ended at the Neuces river, while the Texans insisted that their boundary was the Rio Grande. Thus the region between these two rivers became a debatable land, claimed by both parties, and a source of great and immediate danger. It was evident that Mexico was about to occupy this region with her troops, and the legislature of Texas, alarmed by the threatening attitude of that country, called upon the United States government to protect its territory. The President at once sent General Zachary Taylor with a force of fifteen hundred regular troops, called the "army of occupation," to "take position in the country between the Neuces and the Rio Grande, and to repel any invasion of the Texan territory."



JAMES K. POLK.

General Taylor accordingly took position at Corpus Christi, at the mouth of the Neuces, in September, 1845, and remained there until the spring of 1846. At the same time a squadron of war vessels under Commodore Conner was despatched to the Gulf to coöperate with General Taylor. Both of these officers "were ordered to commit no act of hostility against Mexico unless she declared war, or was herself the aggressor by striking the first blow."

In the war that followed, the Americans were successful in every



LIEUTENANT GRANT GOING FOR AMMUNITION AT MONTEREY.

engagement. They took possession of all their chief cities and towns, and even their strong fortress at Vera Cruz. They conquered several provinces north and east of the capital, and on the 23d of August, 1847, they took possession of the City of Mexico. Their armies were then spread over the country to occupy the principal cities. In May, 1848, peace was declared, and the American troops were withdrawn from the country.

It was at the battle of Monterey, that one of our great generals in the Civil War first exhibited those daring qualities that afterward gave him fame. General Grant, then an unknown young lieutenant, was in the battle, and distinguished himself on account of "gallant and meritorious services."

Several times during the battle he demonstrated his superior judgment and courage, not more in the fierce charge, than in volunteering to make a dangerous ride under fire, in search of ammunition.

The 4th of March, 1849, fell on Sunday, and the inauguration of General Taylor as President of the United States took place on Monday, the 5th of March.

The new President was a native of Virginia, but had removed with his parents to Kentucky at an early age, and had grown up to manhood on the frontiers of that State. In 1808, at the age of twenty-four, he was commissioned a lieutenant in the army by President Jefferson, and had spent forty years in the military service of the country. His exploits in the Florida war, and the war with Mexico, have been related. His



ZACHARY TAYLOR.

brilliant victories in Mexico had made him the most popular man in the United States, and had won him the high office of the Presidency. He was without political experience, but he was a man of pure and stainless integrity, of great firmness, a sincere patriot, and possessed of strong, good sense. He had received a majority of the electoral votes of both the Northern and Southern States, and was free from party or sectional ties of any kind.

On the 29th of January, 1850, Henry Clay introduced into the Senate a series of resolutions, designed to settle all the points in dispute by a general compromise. The resolutions was referred to a committee of thirteen, of which Mr.



MILLARD FILLMORE.

Clay was made chairman. In due time the committee reported a bill, known as the "Omnibus Bill," from its embracing in one measure all Mr. Clay's propositions. It provided for the admission of California as a free State; the organization of the Territories of Utah and New Mexico, without reference to slavery; the adjustment of the boundary between Texas and New Mexico, by paying to the former ten millions of dollars; the abolition of the slave trade in the District of Columbia; and the enactment by

Congress of a more stringent and effective law for the return to their masters of fugitive slaves.

The Omnibus bill was warmly opposed in Congress, and in the country at large. The debate in the Senate brought out the views of the leading statesmen of the country. Senator Jefferson Davis declared the bill in no sense a compromise, because it was unequal in its provisions. The

South, he declared, gained nothing by this measure, as the Constitution already required the rendition of fugitive slaves. He proposed, therefore, that the Missouri Compromise line should be extended to the Pacific, "with the specific recognition of the right to hold slaves in the territory below that line."

Mr. Clay replied to this that "no earthly power could induce him to vote for a specific measure for the introduction of slavery where it had not existed, either north or south of that line. I am unwilling that the posterity of the present inhabitants of California and New Mexico should reproach us for doing just what we reproach Great Britain for doing to us. If the citizens of those Territories come here with constitutions establishing slavery, I am for admitting them into the Union; but then it will be their own work, and not ours, and their posterity will have to reproach them, and not us."

Mr. Calhoun was too ill to take part in the debate in person, but he prepared a speech of great ability, which was read for him in the Senate by Senator Mason, of Virginia. He declared that the Union could be preserved only by maintaining an equal number of free and slave States, in order that the representation of the two sections of the country might be equal in the Senate of the United States.

Great Union Speech by Webster.

Mr. Webster also took part in the debate, and on this occasion delivered what is known as his "great Union speech of the 7th of March," which occupied three days in its delivery. He expressed substantially the same views as those advocated by Mr. Clay. His speech created a profound sensation throughout the country, and did much to secure the final acceptance of the compromise measures.

A few months later, President Taylor was suddenly stricken down with a fever, which, in a few days, terminated fatally. He died on the 9th of July, 1850, amid the grief of the whole country, which felt that it had lost a faithful and upright chief magistrate. Though the successful candidate of one political party, his administration had received the earnest support of the best men of the country, without regard to party, and his death was a national calamity. He had held office only sixteen months, but had shown himself equal to his difficult and delicate position. He was sixty-six years old at the time of his death. By the terms of the

Constitution, the office of President devolved upon Millard Fillmore, Vice-President of the United States.

President Pierce took the oath of office at the capitol at Washington on the 4th of March, 1853, in the presence of an immense throng. He was in his forty-ninth year, and had won an enviable name by his previous services to the country. He was a native of New Hampshire, and had represented that State for four years in the Lower House of Congress, and for nearly a full term in the Senate of the United States. He had also served with distinction during the Mexican war, as a brigadier-general.



FRANKLIN PIERCE.

In February, 1854, the American merchant steamer "Black Warrior" was seized by the Spanish authorities at Havana, on the pretext that she had evaded or violated some uncertain revenue law, and the ship and her cargo were declared confiscated. This action of the Havana officials was regarded in the United States as unjust, and aroused a great deal of feeling against the Spaniards, and gave a sudden impetus to the national sentiment in favor of the acquisition of Cuba. The affair of the

"Black Warrior" was satisfactorily settled by the Spanish government.

While the feeling aroused by the affair was at its height a conference of some of the American ministers in Europe, including Mr. Buchanan, minister to England, Mr. Mason, minister to France, and Mr. Soule, minister to Spain, and some others, was held at Ostend, in Belgium, and a circular was adopted recommending the acquisition of Cuba by the United States. This measure attracted much attention, and elicited considerable European criticism of the alleged ambitious designs of the United States. Mr. Soule, on his return to Madrid, was stopped at Calais by order of the emperor of the French, who had personal reasons for disliking him. The emperor, however, reconsidered his action, and allowed Soule to pass through France to the Spanish frontier.

CHAPTER XXV.

OUTBREAK OF THE GREAT CIVIL WAR.

JAMES BUCHANAN, the fifteenth President of the United States, was inaugurated at Washington on the 4th of March, 1857. He was in his sixty-sixth year, and was a statesman of great accomplishments and ripe experience. He was born in Pennsylvania in 1791, and was by profession a lawyer. He had served his state in Congress as a representative and a senator, had been minister to Russia under President Jackson, and had been a member of the cabinet of President Polk as secretary of state. During the four year previous to his election to the presidency he had resided abroad as the minister of the United States to Great Britain, and in that capacity had greatly added to his reputation as a statesman.

During the whole of Mr. Buchanan's administration the question of slavery in the territories continued to engross the minds of the people. In Kansas, which had not yet been admitted as a state into the Union, there sprang up a bitter warfare between the party favoring slavery and the party opposed to it.

John Brown, an eccentric yet sincere and earnest opponent of slavery, took part in the struggle, and afterwards attempted, with a small band of followers, to strike a death-blow at slavery in West Virginia. He seized the United States arsenal at Harper's Ferry, and gave orders for the arrest of prominent citizens. He was apprehended, tried on the charge of having committed treasonable acts, and was executed. His band of followers was dispersed, yet such was his heroism, and so deep an impression did his self-sacrificing spirit make upon a multitude of people at the north that thousands were animated by his example, and the well-known song beginning, "John Brown's body lies mouldering in the ground," was sung as a war-cry by the Union army.

The anti-slavery party in Kansas finally triumphed, and the territory was admitted into the Union as a free state. The people of the south, with a resolve quite unanimous, determined to sever their connection with

the other states and form an independent Confederacy. South Carolina was the first state to take this serious step, which was the forerunner of one of the greatest conflicts known in history. Virginia was the last of the Southern States to secede, and this was done contrary to the wishes

of many of her people.

Previous to this, in the election of 1860, Abraham Lincoln, the nominee of the Republican party, had been chosen President of the United States, an act that gave offence to the South. Mr. Lincoln was born in Kentucky, in 1809, of poor but honest parents. His father removed in 1817 to Indiana. The lad accompanied him, and, young as he was, aided in building the log cabin which sheltered the family; and afterwards, on their removal to Illinois, by helping to split the



JAMES BUCHANAN.

rails which fenced the farm, he obtained the title of "Rail-Splitter," which, though meant to be opprobrious, he regarded as most honorable. When President of the United States he carried a cane manufactured from one of those very rails, by which his honest and faithful industry had aided his indigent parents.

His mother had early taught him to read the Bible, and imbued his

mind with its holy morality. She also taught him to write, and to communicate his thoughts by writing. Everything was done that the poverty of the family allowed, to assist him in gaining from common schools an imperfect education. Among his few books were two biographies of Washington and one of Henry Clay. At the age of nineteen he was intrusted with the care of a flat-boat, in which he made a voyage to New Orleans. He boldly chose the law as his profession, though with very imperfect means of learning its principles; but in the beginning of his practice he had a case in which he proved the innocence of a widow's son, who would otherwise have been condemned and imprisoned. By this he gained friends and reputation.

Following the examples of Washington and Henry Clay, he ever took great interest in the political movements of his country, and he was put forward to various offices of trust, first, in the State, and then to a seat in the House of Representatives in Congress; and he was, at the time of his great dispute with Douglas, a rival candidate with him for a seat in the United States Senate.

His innate sense of right, which he never weakened or debased, either as a lawyer or a politician, by speaking in favor of what he knew to be wrong, was his guide in making political as well as other distinctions; so that in debate his mind was never distracted by being divided against itself. The whole man went one way. His illustrations were always at hand, from a ready memory stored with abundant facts, which were often amusing, as seen through his love of the ludicrous. Hence his great success when the State became the arena of his remarkable dispute with Douglas, who was already famous as a speaker.

Mr. Lincoln, guarded by troops, was inaugurated President on the 4th of March, 1861. In his inaugural address he tried to convince the South that they had, in the Constitution of the United States, a remedy for all their grievances, his earnest desire being to prevent the flow of blood.



ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

Soon after the secession of the Southern States they organized a government, and made choice of Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, as President, and Alexander H. Stephens, of Georgia, as Vice-President.

South Carolina had, on the 14th of January, 1861, declared in her Legislature that any attempt to reinforce Fort Sumter would be regarded as a declaration of war. April 11th, Governor Pickens, in a note to Major Robert Anderson, commanding Fort Sumter, ordered him to deliver up the fort. Anderson answered that he had no power to comply.

The navy-yards at Brooklyn received orders to have vessels in readiness to send supplies to the beleaguered Fort Sumter, in Charleston harbor. Supplies were sent by the "Star of the West," but did not arrive in season, the vessel having retreated from the harbor after being fired upon. These were, in reality, the first hostile shots from the South on the national flag, though the attack on Fort Sumter is regarded as the beginning of the war.



JEFFERSON DAVIS.

The attack was conducted by Gen. G. T. Beauregard, favorably known in connection with the Mexican war, now appointed to the chief command of the Confederate forces. The assault was opened at four o'clock of April 12th, when was fired the first gun of the terrible civil war which ensued. The fort was sur-

rendered on the afternoon of the 13th, after Anderson and his brave band of seventy men had fought for thirty-four hours, exposed to death by shot, shell and conflagration. Major Anderson reports that he "marched out on the 14th with colors flying and drums beating, bringing away company and private property, and saluting our flag with fifty guns." The men carried away the flag they had defended. That same day and hour, four years afterwards, that memorable flag was restored, and again waved over the shattered remains of Fort Sumter.

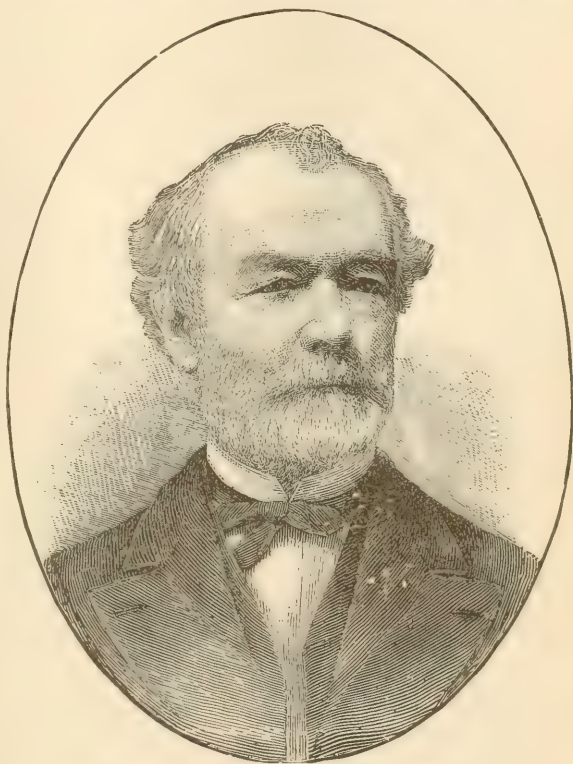
The lightning of the telegraph flashed the news over the country that the flag was dishonored and the life of the nation threatened. Mr. Lin-

coln, nerving himself to the terrible emergency, immediately issued a proclamation, in which he called for 75,000 troops, and convened Congress to meet on the 4th of July. There was a great uprising in the North and troops were hurried forward to Washington.

The troops collected in the vicinity of Washington had surrounded the city with fortifications. Security was felt, and the cry "On to Richmond" began. General Scott had allowed himself to be misguided by it, and unwisely to sanction an onward movement, the command of which he gave to General Irwin McDowell, and which resulted in the disastrous battle of Manassas, or Bull Run. This was the name of a small affluent of the Ocoquan River. On this, thirty-seven miles from Alexandria, and near the important point of Manassas Junction (so called from the meeting of railroads), the Confederates, anticipating the movement, had been for some time preparing their battle-ground. They had so arranged their army that when the Union force should appear they might be lured to a certain fortified position on the stream.

General Joseph E. Johnston, who had commanded a force of several thousands at Harper's Ferry, after burning the bridge across the Potomac, removed his troops to Winchester, where was the able officer General Thomas J. Jackson, with his brigade, and a corps of cavalry. General Scott had, in the meantime, sent General Patterson, with an ample force, to keep General Johnston from leaving the valley of Virginia; but having Manassas in view, Johnston, after amusing Patterson with a skirmish at "Falling Waters," eluded him, and escaped with his force through a gap in the mountain, in time to turn the fortunes of the day at Manassas.

General McDowell moved from Washington on the 16th of July, 1861. On the 18th, the army passed through Centreville, their enemy luring



GENERAL JOSEPH E. JOHNSTON.

them on as he quietly retired before them. A conflict in advance of the final battle, however, occurred, in which the losses of the combatants were eighty-three Union and sixty-eight Confederate. General Beauregard, who commanded the Confederates, wished to delay the final action, to give the necessary time for Johnston to join him from the valley, and General McDowell was obliged to defer the battle one day to receive provisions. On the morning of the 21st the attack, which was to have been made at six o'clock, was delayed for two or three hours.

“There is Jackson, standing like a stone wall.”

Johnston had, meanwhile, arrived with a part of his force. His encounter with Colonel Ambrose Burnside was the opening of the fight. It was at first a hotly-contested field, and such as did no discredit on either side to American valor and military skill. The advantage at first was on the side of the Unionists. Sherman, since so well known, was here distinguished. But while flushed with well-grounded hopes of victory, the Unionists were suddenly assaulted with a fresh body of nearly 3,000 troops arrived by the railroad from the West, under General E. K. Smith, with cavalry under Jackson. The Confederate General Bee called to him, “General, they are beating us back.” Then turning to his men he exclaimed, “Look, there is Jackson, standing like a stone wall.” The troops rallied, and though Bee was killed, the day was won for the Confederates. The Unionists could not, by the utmost efforts of their officers, be rallied, and their retreat became at length a panic-stricken rout.

The day when the telegraph sent throughout the North the unexpected news of this defeat, is yet known as “dark Monday;” the darkest day of the war. A pursuit was not ordered, though President Davis himself was, at the close of the battle, on the ground. Jackson said: “Give me 10,000 men and I will take Washington;” and probably he could then have done so; for he possessed a genius for war perhaps greater than any other developed by the American conflict.

Ball’s Bluff, an eminence on the upper Potomac, opposite Harrison’s Island, became known as the scene of a disastrous conflict. About 2,000 of the Union army, under command of Col. E. Baker, of California, were employed by General Stone, of Massachusetts, in connection with other forces, to reconnoitre, and learn the position of the Confederates under General Evans, extending along the Virginia side of the Potomac. By a

skilfully concealed and superior force, Evans furiously assaulted Baker's command, which bravely stood firm till their gallant commander fell. They were then forced in wild disorder to the stream, where no adequate means had been provided for them to cross. One crazy scow was soon filled and

swamped, and the men, with others, were shot as they were swimming to the further shore. Seeing escape was hopeless, 500 gave themselves up as prisoners.

Lieutenant-General Scott, on account of lameness and other infirmities, requested, in a note to the Secretary of War, to be relieved of his high command, and now onerous duties. With every demonstration of respect from the President, and a special Cabinet council, his request was complied with. Gen. G. B. McClellan was



GENERAL GEORGE B. McCLELLAN.

thereupon appointed to succeed him as commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States.

Gen. Ulysses S. Grant, now in command at Cairo, made a demonstration on Belmont, in Missouri, a landing-place on the Mississippi River, opposite to Columbus, Ky., and the headquarters of the Secession force opposed to Cairo. In Belmont, which was connected by a ferry with Columbus, was

a camp, which Grant took with its munitions; having at the time drawn off the attention of the Confederates by a feigned attack on Columbus, which he had ordered from Paducah. Before Grant had withdrawn his men, however, superior forces under General Polk and General Pillow attacked them; and, though in the desperate fighting which ensued, their valor won them honor, they could not claim the victory.

An important expedition left Hampton Roads on the 29th of October, under Commodore Dupont, with a fleet of sixty ships, bearing a land-force of 10,000, under the command of Gen. W. T. Sherman. Their destination was Port Royal and Hilton Head, on the coast of South Carolina. On the 7th of November they attacked the two new forts, Walker and Beauregard, commanding the entrance of Port Royal; and here the ships, by skillful firing and manœuvring, in four hours performed an extraordinary feat, proving that moving water-craft can defeat and silence stationary forts. On landing, forty-three heavy cannon were seized, but the garrison escaped. The adjoining sea-islands, so fruitful in the best of cotton, were thus commanded by the Unionists, who encouraged the negroes to remain and cultivate them. Beaufort was soon after occupied.

Immense Army in the Field.

At the assembling of Congress early in December, the reports of the Secretaries showed that the government had in service 682,000 soldiers, and 22,000 seamen and marines. These had mostly been raised by voluntary enlistment, excited by large bounties and high pay; but the expense was appalling. A popular loan system was ingeniously devised by the able Secretary of the Treasury, Salmon P. Chase.

The entire force of the Confederates at this time was estimated at 350,000. Their funds were raised by loans from enthusiastic friends, and by Confederate bills representing money, and at first answering its purpose; but, like the Continental money of the Revolution, continually diminishing in value.

Gen. George H. Thomas, encountered, near Mill Springs, in South-eastern Kentucky, the Confederate Generals Zollikoffer and Crittenden, and gained a victory; for which he received the thanks of the President,—communicated by Edwin M. Stanton, now Secretary of War, in place of Simon Cameron, resigned. In this battle General Zollikoffer was killed.

On the 2d of February, General Grant sailed from Cairo, with Com-

modore Foote commanding a fleet of gunboats and transports. Entering the Tennessee River at Paducah, they proceeded to Fort Henry, near the southern border of Kentucky, which, after a short, but earnest, resistance, was evacuated and taken. The expedition proceeded as far as Florence, at the foot of the muscle-shoals, in Alabama.

This unexpected appearance of the old Union flag was hailed by the loyalists, not unfrequently, with tears of joy. Twelve miles east, on the Cumberland River, lay the formidable fortress of Fort Donelson, garrisoned by 15,000 men, which Grant resolved to attack. The gunboats were to co-operate on their return from Florence. Grant, meantime, marched across the country, and, at the head of 15,000 troops, proceeded to invest the stronghold. Unfortunately, a brave, but premature, attack was made on the works by a portion of the army under Gen. Lewis Wallace. On the arrival of the gunboats, Foote at once ran his iron-clad steamers close to the batteries, from which, however, they received so deadly a fire, that his flag-ship and ten others were disabled. He withdrew with the loss of fifty-four men killed and wounded.

Capture of Fort Donelson.

The attack by water having failed, Grant besieged the fort, hoping the further co-operation of the boats. General Floyd, commander of the garrison, attempted now to retreat to Nashville; but was attacked by Grant's army, and, after a bloody battle, with severe loss on both sides, Fort Donelson was surrendered. Floyd and Pillow having fled with a brigade up the river, the formalities of surrender were enacted by General Buckner, the third in command. Nashville was now open to the Unionists, and was occupied by them within a week.

Columbus, after the fall of the forts, was abandoned by the Confederates, after first moving what they could of their guns and munitions further down the river, to Island No. 10, a few miles above New Madrid. On the 3d of March, a body of Union cavalry entered Columbus, and hoisted the national flag.

On the 12th of January, there sailed from Hampton Roads, under Commodore Goldsborough, a fleet of 100 vessels of all classes, bearing land forces under General Burnside: they were destined to take Roanoke Island, on the coast of North Carolina. This spot, lying between Albemarle and Pamlico Sounds, commanded their seashore, and had been strongly fortified

with two new forts, bearing forty-three guns, and garrisoned by 3,000 men. The invaders made their entrance into the inner waters at Hatteras Inlet, the same as in the former expedition; but a storm of terrible length and violence delayed them, and it was not until the 3d of February that the attack on the forts could be begun. Colonel Shaw, their commandant, resisted bravely till the evening of the 5th, when he surrendered. A small fleet of gunboats, under Commodore Lynch, had aided the forts, but now withdrew to Elizabeth City, to which place the Union vessels pursued them: they were all destroyed but two, which escaped up the Dismal Swamp Canal. In an attack on Fort Blanchard, Colonel Russell, of Connecticut, was killed; and, on the Confederate side, Capt. O. J. Wise, son of the ex-governor of Virginia, lost his life.

Bloody Battle of Pea Ridge.

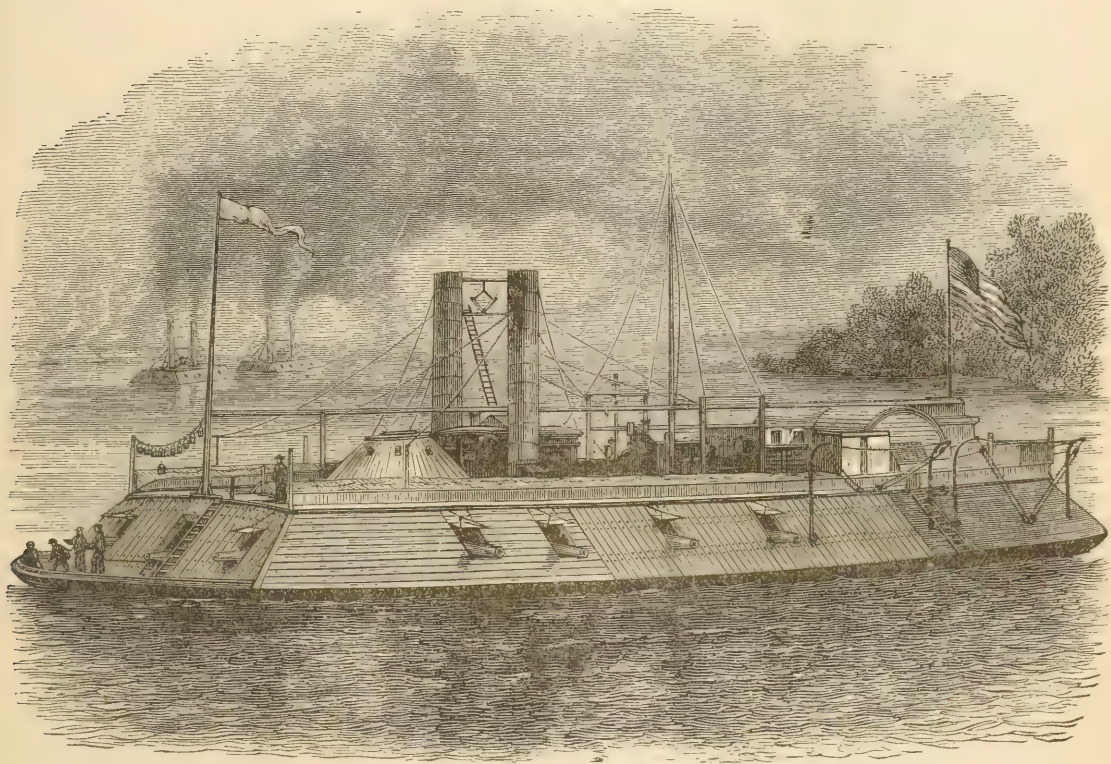
In Missouri, after Fremont and Hunter had retired, General Halleck, who succeeded in command, had by judicious military operations driven Price across the State line into Arkansas. General Curtiss co-operated—while Price was joined by Generals Van Dorn and McCulloch, the former in command of a Confederate force said now to be 30,000 strong. Here the bloody battle of Pea Ridge occurred, lasting two days. On the first day the Confederates had the advantage; but on the second the valor and conduct of the German General Sigel turned the fortunes of the field. The Confederates were defeated, and two Generals, McCulloch and McIntosh, were killed. On the same day as the battle of Pea Ridge occurred the wonderful affair of the ram “Merrimac.”

In no particular did the American war attract attention throughout the civilized world more than in the changes in naval warfare brought about by the iron-coating of vessels, making them impenetrable to shot. The Confederates had thus iron-plated the sides, and made roof-like the top of the old U. S. steam frigate “Merrimac,” and had fastened to the bow an immense iron prong.

Its destructive powers were appreciated. The Union Navy Department, as well as several patriotic individuals, encouraged Mr. Ericsson, a Swede, in a plan which he had invented of a steam water-craft to meet this ram “Merrimac.” On the morning of March 8 it was seen advancing upon the Union fleet in Hampton Roads. Regardless of terrific broadsides, the ram steered directly up to the frigate “Cumberland,” struck her with the

iron prong, and beat a large hole in her side. She sank, and half her crew were lost. The "Merrimac" next sought the frigate "Congress," which struck her colors, and at night was burned. Another frigate, the "Minnesota," had run aground, and the "Merrimac" rested. Amazement and dread sat on every countenance; was the whole navy to be thus destroyed?

The next morning—so had Providence ordered—the little Ericsson battery, called a "Monitor," appeared, commanded by Lieutenant Worden.



IRON-CLAD GUNBOAT.

She seemed like a small raft, with a revolving turret, in which were two enormous guns. As the "Merrimac" approached to assault the "Minnesota," this little craft closed with her in a deadly conflict which lasted several hours. The "Merrimac" was finally obliged to succumb, and drew off totally disabled, never again to renew the conflict.

In abandoning Columbus, the Confederates had made a stand at Island No. 10, in the Mississippi River, four miles above New Madrid. To take this island General Pope was sent by General Halleck with a land force, to co-operate with Commodore Foote with a fleet of gunboats, prepared at

Cairo for this purpose. A memorable event occurred in the capture of this island; this was the cutting of a channel twelve miles long, through a part of which Colonel Bissell, of the engineer corps, had to employ his men in sawing off large trees four feet under water. Through this channel a part of the army of General Pope were moved to New Madrid, and thus the island, invested from above and below, was besieged for three weeks.

Commodore Foote then determined, despite a hostile fleet, on running the gunboats past the forts on the island. The iron-clad steamer "Carondelet," Captain Walke, was selected, and in a thunder-storm on the night of the 5th of April she accomplished the perilous success. The remainder of the fleet followed on the succeeding night, and debarked a land force. The Confederates at once, and without a conflict, evacuated the island. General W. D. McCall surrendered 5,000 soldiers, a great quantity of ammunition, tents, horses, etc., with more than 200 cannon.

Surrender of Memphis.

Some of their vessels the Confederates sank, but the larger part fell down the river to their next fortified point, which was Fort Pillow. There occurred severe naval fighting under Commodore Davis, to whom Foote had given over the command; but it was evacuated finally on the 4th of June. On the 5th Commodore Davis assaulted the Confederate fleet in the harbor of Memphis, and after a fierce battle (there being iron-clad rams) victory remained with the Unionists, and Memphis, the largest city on the Mississippi between St. Louis and New Orleans, was now surrendered to the naval power of the Union.

The Confederate army in the Southwest was under the command of General Beauregard and General A. S. Johnston, and was encamped at Corinth, in Mississippi, near the Tennessee line. General Grant, intending to attack as soon as reinforcements under General Buell should arrive, had arranged his army at Pittsburg Landing, in Tennessee, on the west side of the Tennessee River, and twenty miles from Corinth. The three divisions of his army under Sherman, McClernand and Prentiss, were the most advanced.

To attack this army before it was reinforced, Beauregard and Johnston had urged forward their forces in three divisions, under Generals Hardee, Bragg and Polk. Leaving Corinth on the 4th, they had hoped to arrive on the 5th, but were delayed until early on the morning of the 6th. Their

attack was so spirited, and so little expected, that at first the advanced Union divisions were thrown into great confusion. The soldiers were driven from their camps, and some, never having been in battle, fled like cowards. The officers made desperate efforts to rally the fugitives, and to form and direct regiments that stood firm.

Sherman was twice wounded, and had three horses killed under him. The Confederates, on their side, fought with great bravery, and were managed with much skill. Johnston fell, and the sole command now devolved upon Beauregard. The Unionists, on the first day of this great battle, were driven a mile and a half from their camps on the high ground, where the small church of Shiloh stood, to the low banks of the river.

Here Colonel Webster had found cannon sufficient for a powerful battery, and when the Confederates had formed for a final

effort, he opened it upon them with prodigious effect. At the same time two gunboats, lying in the river, had, by putting into the mouth of a small stream, found a gap through which they could reach them with shells, and thus, just at night, they were obliged to fall back to the camps.



GENERAL W. T. SHERMAN.

Thus the Union army were preserved from destruction, and, knowing that help was near, they rested on the bloody field, confident of regaining their losses the next day. The army of General Buell had, by General Grant, been hurried on, and arriving on the opposite bank of the Tennessee, they were ferried over that river during the dark and rainy night, and were ready at morning to aid those who the day before had fought so desperately. History makes mention of few battles fought on both sides with more courage and military skill than brother Americans here displayed in destroying each other. Success fluctuated, but finally the Unionists regained their lost guns and camps, and the Confederates retired, but they did so without confusion and in good order.

Great Losses of both Armies.

General Beauregard, during the night, drew off the remains of his army, and directed his course to Corinth. He sent to General Grant for permission to bury his dead, and also that some who had lost friends might be allowed to seek for them. General Grant replied that he had already caused all who had fallen to be buried. Strewn upon the bloody field had lain 10,000 dead, and twice that number wounded, a destruction far exceeding that of any other battle ever before fought within the limits of Republican America.

General Halleck now arrived. By his rank he superseded in command both Grant and Buell. He moved his army nearer to Corinth, and General Grant urged, though vainly, an immediate attack. On the 29th of April General Beauregard, not feeling strong enough to meet so large a force, abandoned his encampment, taking away all his guns, and removing or destroying his munitions. On the 23d of July General Halleck (General McClellan's command being confined to the Army of the Potomac) was made General-in-chief, and ordered to Washington, the army being sent in different directions.

CHAPTER XXVI.

CAMPAIGNS OF McCLELLAN AND LEE.

WE go back in the order of time. The attention of republican America was now fixed on the main Union army concentrated near Washington, and to be employed against Richmond by McClellan. This army was kept back inactive till the middle of March, in order, says General McClellan, to be disciplined, formed, and instructed, and a formidable artillery to be created; and, while other armies were first to move and accomplish certain results, this one might then give the death-blow to the rebellion.

Previous to this period, General McClellan had ordered movements, as commander-in-chief, extending over the whole country. Afterwards his command was cut down to the army of the Potomac; and parts of that army, which were to co-operate with him, were directed to other objects. Concerning no other officer of the war has the country been so divided in its opinion.

It was on the 17th of March, 1862, that McClellan began embarking from Alexandria the main portion of his army, amounting to 85,000 men, in transports, for Fortress Monroe, where they debarked about the 1st of April. On the 4th he received an astounding report from the War Department at Washington, that parts of the army whose co-operation, under General Banks and McDowell, he was to have received by a direct route as he approached Richmond, were to be diverted to other objects.

He obtained, however, an increase of his force of 11,000 men, sent by General Franklin from McDowell's corps, and he made such representations at Washington, that he continued to advance with the strong hope that the original plan of the campaign might yet be carried out. General Joseph E. Johnston was in command of the Confederate military operations; but the engineering skill of General Robert E. Lee had planned their great system of defence. General McClellan marched twenty miles to besiege Yorktown, in a violent rain over a miry road.

The siege was memorable for the military skill displayed on both

sides. At length, when McClellan was about to storm the works, the Confederates abandoned their stronghold, and on the night of the 4th of May silently withdrew. Gloucester, on the opposite side of York River, fell with Yorktown, and its guns and munitions also helped to increase the stores of the Unionists.

General McClellan, on the morning of the 5th, ordered forward in pursuit cavalry and horse artillery, under General Stoneman. This led to the battle of Williamsburg. The pursuing party encountered a severe attack amidst rain and mire, and fought with determined bravery—Stoneman being relieved by Hooker, and he, after hours of fighting, by Kearney. Hancock had meantime flanked the Confederates, when they withdrew and evacuated Williamsburg, their policy being to delay the advance of their enemy, and thus gain time to perfect the defences of Richmond.

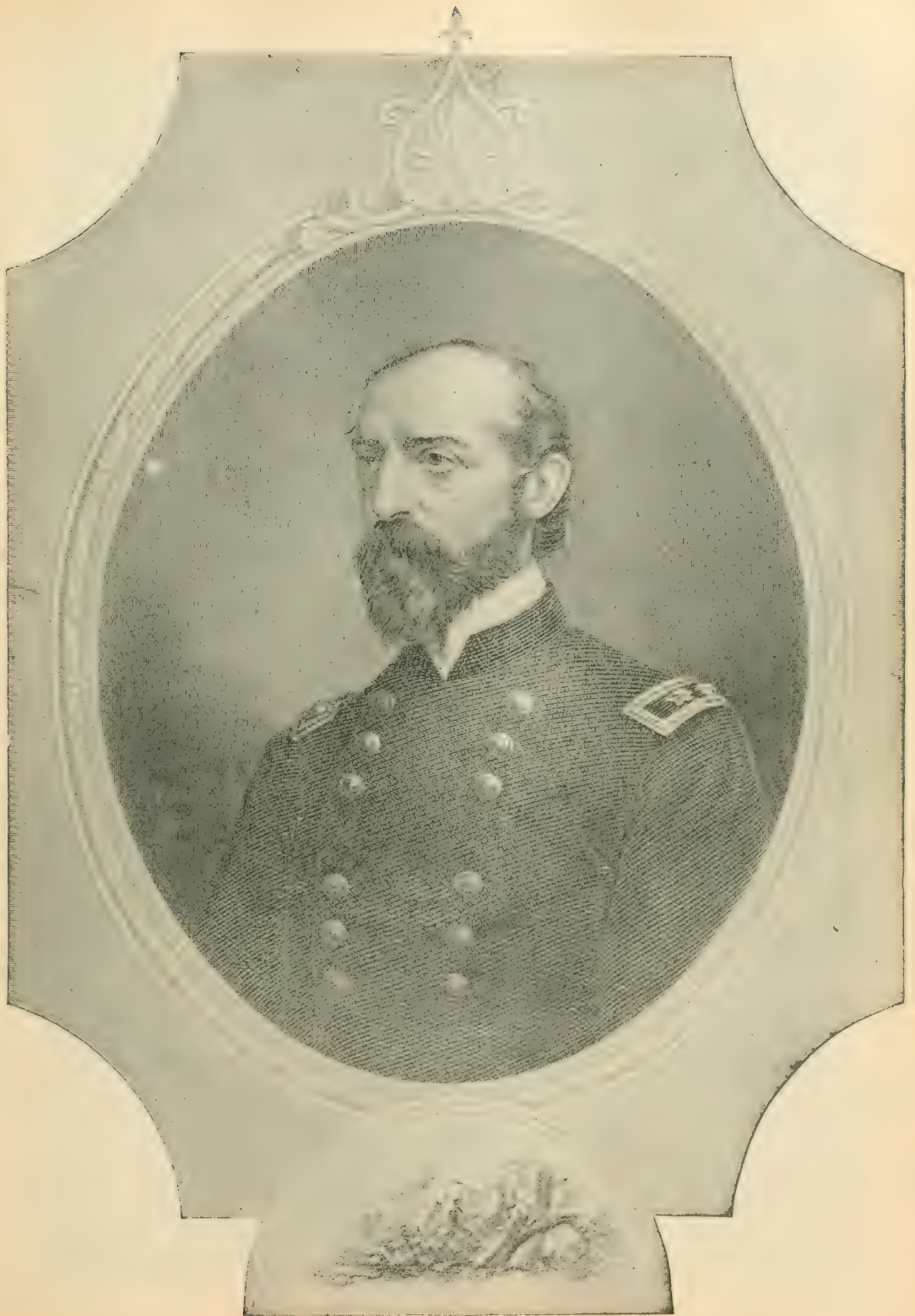
Military Operations at Norfolk.

Meantime General Wool, having obtained, during a visit of President Lincoln to him at Fortress Monroe, his consent for capturing Norfolk, marched to the assault at the head of 5000 men; but when he arrived at the fortified camp of General Huger, the Confederate commander, he found it had been evacuated.

Citizens of Norfolk surrendered the city to General Wool. Huger had taken away or destroyed all the guns and munitions possible. The dreaded "Merrimac" still lay at Craney Island; but the next day after General Wool's arrival, her commander blew her up. A naval expedition was now set on foot by Commodore Goldsborough, to go up the James River, and co-operate with General McClellan. The vessels, among which was the "Monitor," assaulted Fort Darling, seven miles from Richmond; but, after an unsuccessful engagement, the attempt failed.

General McClellan advanced; and, on the 15th of May, his army was at the White House, a point where the Pamunky branch of the York River is intersected by a railroad from West Point to Richmond, it being understood that his supplies were to be sent to the White House by the way of the Potomac, Chesapeake Bay, and James River.

The confidence in the co-operation of McDowell, with which McClellan had undertaken the capture of Richmond, had been shaken, but was renewed; and he went forward, confidently expecting his arrival from the North, his headquarters being at Fredericksburg. Learning that a Confederate force



GENL. GEO. G. MEADE.



BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG.

was at Hanover Court House, through which McDowell must pass, McClellan, on the 27th, detached a force under General Fitz-John Porter, when, after a march of fourteen miles, and a spirited engagement, the Confederates were driven from the field, and the way for the expected advance opened; and McClellan's last orders at night were, that McDowell's signals were to be listened for, and without a moment's delay reported to him. But those signals were never made.

General McDowell, much to his discontent, was recalled by President Lincoln to guard Washington, which was threatened by the Confederates, led by Stonewall Jackson, who, in the Valley of the Shenandoah, had overcome the Union forces under Generals Milroy, Fremont, and Banks,



GENERAL T. J. (STONEWALL) JACKSON.

in sanguinary battles fought at Front Royal, Kernestown, and Winchester.

On the 25th of May, General McClellan began crossing his army over the Chickahominy, at Bottom's Bridge, ten miles from Richmond. But a violent storm so raised the river as to destroy his new bridges before his army had completely crossed them. As the storm cleared away, on the 29th, the Confederates discovered that the army was thus divided by the

river; and, taking advantage of this, they attacked, on the 31st, at noon, with great fury.

Some of the front ranks, seized with panic, fled, while their officers vainly sought to rally them; but other and firmer spirits taking their places, the day was recovered, and closed with almost the whole field in possession of the Unionists. The Confederates, trusting to regain the battle, renewed it the next morning; but McClellan's army were now prepared, and the fight resulted in a Union victory. The carnage had been great on both sides. Joseph E. Johnston was carried from, the field severely wounded, and General Robert E. Lee was appointed to succeed him.

Severe Engagements in Virginia.

General (Stonewall) Jackson, the hero of the Valley, pursued Banks to the Potomac, and entered Harper's Ferry. His advance, so sudden and unexpected, had spread consternation. The President, as we have seen, recalled McDowell to the defence of Washington, thus defeating the plans of McClellan. The Secretary of War called on Northern Governors for troops. Jackson received, at Harper's Ferry, intelligence that Shields, sent by McDowell from Fredericksburg, and Fremont coming from the South branch of the Potomac, were moving to form a junction at Strasburg, in his rear; but Jackson, with his wonted celerity, had passed Strasburg before Fremont and Shields arrived.

They pursued him along the passes of the mountains, but could not bring him to a stand, his rear being guarded by cavalry, commanded by that wonderful cavalry officer, Colonel Ashby, who died fighting, near Harrisonburg, before Jackson reached Port Republic. Here Jackson determined to make a stand, believing that the two pursuing armies were so situated that they might be fought separately, and defeated in detail; and in the event so it proved. A sanguinary battle was fought on the 8th and 9th of June, in which the Unionists were defeated. Jackson, with his remaining army, backed through a mountain pass, and joined Lee at Richmond. He had received from him an order, which his messenger delivered, directed to Stonewall Jackson, somewhere:

After the first battle of Fair Oaks, McClellan had occupied his army for more than three weeks in constructing intrenchments, which extended twelve miles east and northeast of Richmond, on both sides of the Chickahominy, the nearest point being five miles distant.

On the other hand, Lee and his assistants had intrenched Richmond by all the improved methods of modern art. McClellan was meantime urging on Mr. Lincoln and General Halleck, who had been called to Washington as commander-in-chief, the necessity of more troops to enable him to take Richmond.

The Confederate leader was watching him. He sent General Stuart, his able cavalry commander, who rode quite around McClellan's camp, and had discovered one unguarded point. Lee had meantime found means to summon Stonewall Jackson from the valley, and was now fully ready to commence the memorable seven days fighting. This was begun on the 26th of June, at "Fair Oaks" or "Seven Pines," the two adjoining stations nearest the city. McClellan pushed his left wing towards Richmond, and after a day's hard fighting, succeeded in gaining a mile. In the meantime Stonewall Jackson had been sent by Lee with a strong force to penetrate the centre of the Union army at the unguarded point, and thus, by a flank movement, divide the right wing from the left.

Severe Fighting and Dreadful Carnage.

General Lee co-operated by attacking the left wing in front. This was on the 27th, at Mechanicsville. Meantime, three miles east, Jackson, after a detour, had made a fearful attack. McClellan prevented the capture of his whole left wing by immediately ordering his forces to retreat from Mechanicsville. Severe was the fighting, and dreadful the carnage. The Confederates were victorious, but they did not accomplish their purpose of dividing the army, though they caused McClellan to abandon his fortifications on the left bank of the Chickahominy, and cut him off from his base of supplies.

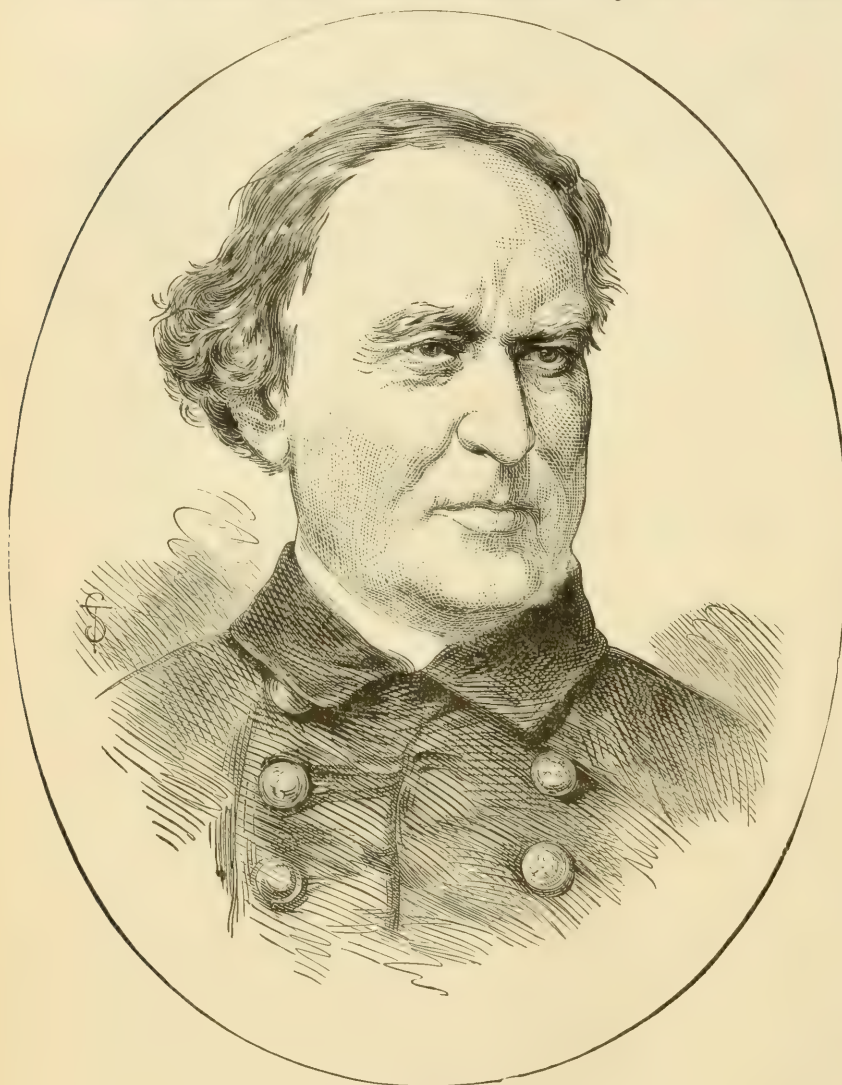
Anticipating that such might be the case, he had prepared for the emergency, and so succeeded in masking his intentions that the Confederates found little spoil at the White House; the stores and munitions having been brought in wagons to his camp, or embarked in transports to be sent up the James River, to which McClellan now directed the march of his army. He succeeded in safely conducting his long train of supplies, and finally saving his hard-pressed and diminished army—marching by night and fighting by day.

At Malvern Hill was the last battle, and it was one of the most sanguinary of the war. From the 26th of June to the 1st of July, inclusive,

the army of the Potomac lost 15,249 men. The army embarked at Harrison's Landing, on James River, and was at length removed by water to the vicinity of Alexandria.

New Orleans was then the second city in the United States in a com-

mercial and military view—the most important in the Confederacy. Plans for its capture were early set on foot. Captain David G. Farragut, of the navy, was selected to prepare for the expedition and command the naval force, with General B. F. Butler to lead the land army. Captain Farragut was a native of Tennessee, and at the age of fourteen years had distinguished himself as a midshipman on board the frigate *Essex*, Commodore Porter, in the bloodiest



COMMODORE DAVID G. FARRAGUT.

naval battle in the last war with England. At the opening of the Civil War he left his home in Norfolk, Va., took his family to New York, and hastened to Washington to offer his services to his country.

Captain Farragut sailed from Hampton Roads February 3d, with a fleet of forty-six vessels (including mortar-boats, under Commodore Porter), the

whole bearing three hundred guns of different descriptions. As a preliminary measure, General Butler had already sent Brigadier-General John W. Phelps, of Vermont, to occupy Ship Island, lying off the southern coast of the Mississippi. The fleet arrived at Ship Island the 20th of February, and after making a reconnoissance, Captain Farragut decided to enter the Mississippi through its mouths, or "passes," knowing that after ascending twenty-five miles he would find on opposite sides of the river the two strong forts, Jackson (the stronger), and Fort Philip, seventy-five miles from the city of New Orleans.

The Confederate Fleet Captured by Farragut.

On entering the river, the bars at the mouth detained the fleet, but they were all passed by the 5th of April. The Confederate fleet, long sheltered under the guns of the forts, was commanded by Commodore G. N. Hollins, and consisted of thirteen gunboats, and two powerful iron-clad steamers. A formidable chain was also extended from one fort to the other. So confident were the newspapers of the city in the sufficiency of their defences, that they published, "Our only fear is that our Northern invaders will not appear."

On the 18th of April, the bombardment opened, the mortar vessels taking the lead, and each throwing a shell once in ten minutes. They were answered by the 225 guns of the forts, and the fire of the Confederate fleet. Five ships, cotton loaded, were sent down from New Orleans to mingle with, and set fire to the Union fleet. They did no harm. The bombardment of the forts continued five days. Then Commodore Farragut succeeded in breaking the boom, or chain, across the river.

After a fierce conflict with the Confederate fleet, in which one of the Federal ships, the "Varuna," Captain Boggs, sunk or disabled five Confederate vessels, and was then run ashore in a sinking condition, Captain Farragut destroyed or captured the Confederate fleet. The forts were passed, and Commodore Porter was left, with the transports and a part of the fleet, to reduce them. They were silenced, and were surrendered on the 27th of April.

Captain Farragut next proceeded, with nine vessels, to New Orleans, meeting burning vessels loaded with cotton, and other evidences of the destruction to which the Confederates had subjected their property, rather than that it should fall into Union hands.

On the 26th Captain Farragut addressed a letter to Mayor Monroe, requesting him, since General Lovell, the military commander, had disappeared, to see that no flag but that of the United States should be permitted to fly in the presence of the fleet; and he particularly requested the mayor to see that there be no firing upon women and children for expressing pleasure at witnessing the old flag. Mayor Monroe answered him, "that the city was his 'by brutal force;' but as to his hoisting any flag not of their own adoption or allegiance, there lives not a man in our midst whose hand and heart would not be paralyzed at the mere thought of such an act."

Insult to United States Officers.

Captain Farragut, in answer, said, that not only was the flag of Louisiana still flying, but those officers whom he had sent to hoist the flag of the United States over the mint were grossly insulted, and he therefore requests that women and children be removed previous to his vindicating the honor of his government by shelling the city. The mayor refused, and the captain happily did not fulfil his threat. He left the command to General Butler, who landed on the 1st of May. Farragut was afterwards promoted to the rank of Commodore.

The results of the expedition were the opening of the Mississippi to Natchez, the capture of New Orleans and Baton Rouge, and the occupation of a large part of the State of Louisiana.

The troops operating in Northern Virginia under Generals McDowell, Fremont, and Banks, were all combined in one army under Major-General Pope. He took the field on July 14th, his forces being stationed at Culpepper and Fredericksburg. The withdrawal of General McClellan's army from the Peninsula had left General Lee to direct all his forces against General Pope. By the 1st of August the Confederates were in motion, marching northward—intending to invade Maryland, and capture Washington and Baltimore. The plan of the campaign was to fall upon and crush the forces of General Pope before any part of General McClellan's army could be brought to his support.

The first conflict occurred at Cedar Mountain, where General Banks met and repulsed the advance of General Lee. General Pope, however, being unable to check the superior force brought against him, retired behind the Rapidan. Here he was attacked, but maintained his position, and compelled General Lee to move higher up, and seek a pass through the Bull Run

mountains. In the meantime, Stuart's cavalry got into Pope's rear, and captured several trains, and made many prisoners. Before General Lee could strike General Pope, a part of McClellan's army had arrived, and a severe battle was fought on the plains of Manassas, and another at Chantilly, in both of which General Pope was defeated. In the latter the Union Generals Stevens and Kearney were killed. The army was drawn into the defences at Washington. General Pope's losses in this campaign were estimated at 15,000 to 20,000.

The way was now open to General Lee either to attack Washington or invade Maryland. He chose the latter, and crossed the Potomac near Point of Rocks. He advanced as far as Frederick, where, on the 8th, he issued an address to the people, inviting them to join his standard.

The Battle of Antietam.

When General McClellan arrived in Washington he was within General Pope's department, and without a command. By direction of the President he was ordered to assume command of all the troops for the defence of the capital. He took measures immediately to check General Lee. By the 9th of September his army was within sixteen miles of Frederick, and so posted to command all the lower fords of the Potomac. As soon as Lee heard of the approach of McClellan he withdrew from Frederick, and took a strong position at South Mountain. At the same time he dispatched Stonewall Jackson with 25,000 men to capture Harper's Ferry, and afterwards to rejoin him.

General McClellan overtook Lee at South Mountain, and at once assaulted his position. The battle raged all the afternoon, when the Confederates were driven from their ground, and retreated to a position behind Antietam Creek. The Federal army occupied the battle-ground.

The Federal forces at Harper's Ferry numbered 13,000, commanded by Colonel Miles. The place was not fortified, and was not, perhaps, defensible. Colonel Miles surrendered, without any effort at defence or escape. The consequences were disastrous. If he had held the place even for a day or two he would have prevented the junction of Jackson and Lee at Antietam.

General McClellan pushed on his troops in pursuit of Lee, and attacked him at Antietam. The battle began early in the morning, and raged all day. Attack and defence were obstinate on both sides; the ground was alternately lost and won, and nightfall left both armies on the field of

battle, apparently ready to resume the contest in the morning. General McClellan being the attacking party, and having won some points of the Confederate position, had the advantage. But he did not deem it prudent to renew the attack the next day, and during the night General Lee abandoned the field, recrossed the Potomac, and gave up all hopes of remaining in Maryland. The Confederate loss in this campaign is supposed to have reached thirty thousand. The Union losses, including the surrender at Harper's Ferry, must have been much larger.

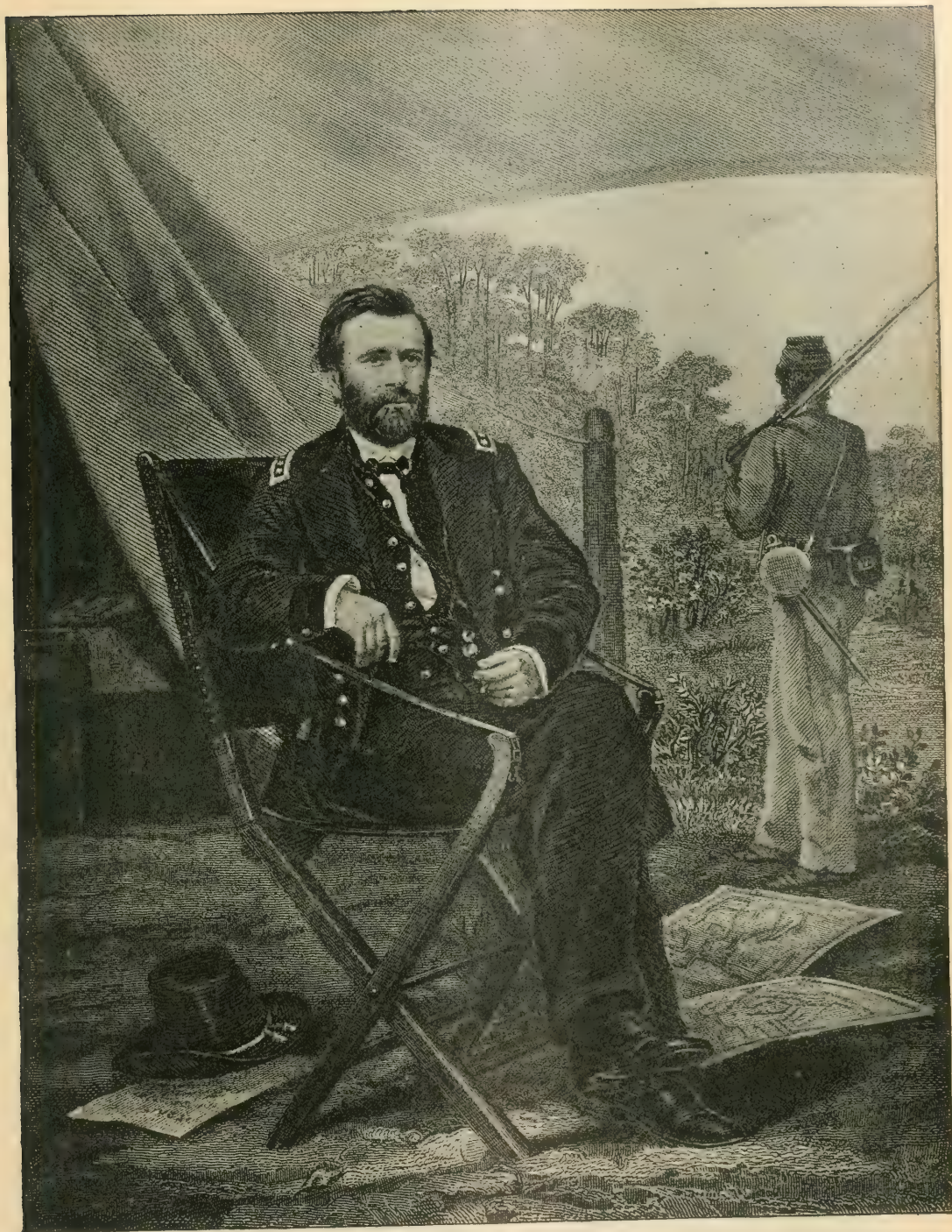


GENERAL ROBERT E. LEE.

him failed. The delay of McClellan dissatisfied the Government. The army was in good condition and good spirits, and was steadily advancing and pressing the Confederates before it. On the 7th General McClellan was ordered to turn over his command to General Burnside, and await further orders at Trenton, New Jersey.

General Burnside did not seek the command. He had refused it twice, and expressed the opinion which many held, that McClellan ought to be retained. He accepted only under peremptory orders from his superiors. He took command November 10, and moved the army rapidly towards Fredericksburg. He had hoped to cross and occupy the heights around the city before General Lee could reach them. The pontoons, by

General McClellan, after the battle of Antietam, lay encamped on the north bank of the Potomac, in the vicinity of Sharpsburgh and Harper's Ferry, until September 26th, when the cavalry under Pleasanton, with General Burnside's corps, crossed into Virginia. While so encamped the Confederate General Stuart again appeared at Chambersburg with 1,800 cavalry, and, making the entire circuit of McClellan's army, re-entered Virginia at Conrad's Ferry, six miles below the mouth of the Monocacy. He burned government store-houses and machine shops, and carried off 1,000 horses. All attempts to intercept



U. S. Grant



CAPTURE OF NEW ORLEANS. — FLEET PASSING FORTS ON THE MISSISSIPPI

FORT S. PHILIP

'Brooklyn' (barracks of Fort S. Philip)

FORT JACKSON!

Louisiana (iron-plated battery mounted),

Vatuna (fighting through iron clad gunboats)

Hartford (flag ship)
steamer alongside

Pensacola

Mississippi

Manassas (Army)

FOUR VESSELS IN THE DISTANCE. SHELLING THE FORTS.

which he expected to cross the river, did not leave Alexandria until two days after he had arrived at Falmouth, nor until Lee had occupied the heights of Fredericksburg.

During the 11th and 12th General Burnside threw bridges over the river, and his army crossed and occupied the city. The next day was spent in disposing his forces for an attack upon Lee's position, which extended in a semicircle from Point Royal to a point six miles above the city, and consisted of two rows of batteries, one a mile in rear of the other, and both overlooking the city. On the morning of the 13th General Burnside ordered the assault. His left wing was commanded by General Franklin, who endeavored to take a battery, but was repulsed. He then attempted to turn the right of Lee's position, and gained nearly a mile, which was the only success of the day.

Driven Back by a Storm of Shot and Shell.

General Sumner on the right, and General Hooker in the centre, made three attempts to scale the heights, but so deadly was the storm of shot and shell that they did not reach the first line of the Confederate position. The Federal dead and wounded lay where they fell, and could not be brought off. General Burnside ordered his army to recross the river on the night of the 15th, which was done without molestation from Lee. It was a bloody and fruitless battle, if battle it can be called, when one army, secure in its intrenchments, deliberately shoots down another, led out into the open field helpless and shelterless.

The Confederate loss was very small, while the Union loss was 1,138 killed, 9,105 wounded, and 2,078 missing, a total of 12,321. General Burnside retained command until January 26, 1863, when at his own request, he was relieved, and General Joseph Hooker was appointed to succeed him.

After the battle of Shiloh, General Beauregard retired to his strong position at Corinth. General Halleck prepared to attack him by regular siege approaches. The Confederates did not wait for an assault, but, keeping up a show of strength in front, quietly withdrew, with nearly all their material, into Alabama and Georgia. General Halleck returned to St. Louis, leaving General Buell in command. The war was transferred to Middle Tennessee and Kentucky, and the Federal army was rapidly marched there, to meet the advances of General Kirby Smith and General Bragg from Chattanooga, northward, threatening Nashville and Louisville.

Smith drove before him small detachments of Unionists through Cumberland Gap. Sharp encounters occurred between the cavalry of the two armies, but Bragg's march could not be checked.

Buell fell back from Murfreesborough and from Nashville, reaching Louisville September 25th. Buell advised the evacuation of Nashville, but the military governor, Andrew Johnson, remonstrated so strongly against it, that it was decided to hold it. Bragg, detaching a force to attempt Nashville, pushed on towards Louisville, occupying Mumfordsville September 17th. While Buell was collecting his troops at Louisville, an order came from Washington that Major-General George H. Thomas should supersede Buell, but, by his advice, General Buell was retained, with General Thomas second in command.

Generals Price and Van Dorn, having crossed the Mississippi, at the head of a large force, too late to join Beauregard, advanced against Corinth, Miss., where General Rosecrans was stationed. A sharp battle was fought at Iuka, September 19th. General Price attempted to storm the Federal works without success. During the night he withdrew. Joining Van Dorn, their united forces fell upon Corinth October 4th; after a fierce conflict of three hours, the Confederates were repulsed. In the two battles Rosecrans lost 2,600 men. He captured 2,268 soldiers, 3,000 stand of small arms, and many guns. He estimated the Confederate loss at 8,800 men.

Furious Onset on the Union Lines.

On the 1st of October, Buell resumed operations, moving one division of his army towards Frankfort, and the other three towards Bardstown. On the morning of the 8th, the Confederates were found strongly posted at Perrysville, and a brisk engagement occurred, the contest being for possession of a commanding position, covering some pools of water, for which the Federal army had been suffering three days. During the day, Bragg made a furious onset on the Federal lines, and at first gained a decided advantage, but, re-enforcements coming up, the Confederates were repulsed, and driven back through the town to their first position. Darkness terminated the conflict. Only two divisions of the Federal army had been engaged. The arrival of a third induced General Bragg to retreat, which he did during the night, in good order. Among the Union killed were Generals Terrell and Jackson. The Confederate loss is not known.

General Buell pursued Bragg as far as Bowling Green and Glasgow,

Kentucky, where he remained until the 27th, when he was superseded by Gen. William S. Rosecrans. Bragg had concentrated his army at Murfreesborough, having in his advance captured an immense booty, consisting of cattle, clothing, bacon, grain, and arms, which he took safely off in his retreat. Rosecrans reached Nashville November 7th, and remained there until December 26th, the time being actively spent in repairing the railroad to Louisville, and in bringing forward supplies. Bragg having sent a large cavalry force into Tennessee, and another into Kentucky, the occasion was seized to attack him.

Forward Movement of Rosecrans.

The movement began December 26th, and by the 30th, the army was concentrated in the vicinity of Stone River. McCook commanded the right wing, Thomas the centre, and Crittenden the left. The plan was to turn the Confederate right, but Bragg began the fight by an early and furious onslaught upon the right of Rosecrans. The Union forces were driven from their position, and were only saved from defeat by the strenuous exertions of their general, who rallied them late in the day, and, forming a new line, repulsed the Confederates. The next day was spent in feeling each other's lines. On the morning of January 2d, Bragg opened a heavy fire of artillery upon Rosecrans' centre. It was soon silenced by a return fire, and, for a time, the combat ceased.

Rosecrans pushed a division across Stone River, taking a strong position. About three o'clock P.M., the Confederates fell upon it, and drove it back, pursuing closely. But a terrible fire of artillery, followed by a charge of infantry, drove them in disorder across the river. Darkness and a chill winter rain closed the day, and prevented pursuit. The rain fell all the next day. On the night of the 3d, General Bragg evacuated Murfreesborough, and General Rosecrans entered it on the 5th. Rosecrans had 43,400 men, of whom he lost 1,533 killed, 7,245 wounded, and 2,800 missing, a total of 11,578. Bragg's army was estimated at 62,490, and his total loss at 14,560.

An Indian massacre in Minnesota added to the horrors of the Civil War. The first disturbance, August 17th, was by four drunken Indians, near Red Wood, who, after an altercation with each other, killed several white men. The next day, between 250 and 300 Indians, led by their chief, Little Crow, attacked the agency at Little Medicine, and slaughtered

all the whites. Then they spread themselves throughout all the western part of the State and into Dakota, burning and plundering isolated and defenceless farm-houses, murdering men, women, and children, thus renewing all the atrocities that marked the Indian wars of our early history. Colonel Schley held them in check, until at length General Pope was sent with a sufficient force, and, in a sharp battle at Wood Lake, utterly defeated them. Five hundred were taken prisoners, and sentenced to be hung.

By the President's order only thirty-eight were hung, and the rest, after a long imprisonment, were set at liberty. It is estimated that from 20,000 to 30,000 persons were driven from their homes, and that 500 lost their lives. Thousands of women and children were made dependent upon charity. In raising the means the excellent Bishop Whipple was very active.


Depredations by Confederate Cruisers.

A few cruisers, sailing under the Confederate flag during the war, inflicted great damage upon commerce. Every facility was afforded in Great Britain, and in her colonial ports, for building, victualling, arming, equipping and repairing these vessels. The "*Oreto*" was built in Liverpool, sailed to Nassau August, 1862, was there detained awhile, and then delivered to Captain Maffit, and subsequently appeared as the "*Florida*," sailing from Mobile. The "*Alabama*," built at Birkenhead, sailed from the Mersey June 29, 1861, under Captain Semmes. The "*Shenandoah*," built at Glasgow in 1863, sailed from Liverpool to Madeira, and there received her crew and armament from the British brig "*Laurel*," and started on a cruise to the Arctic Ocean to destroy American whaling vessels. The British Government either could not, or would not, prevent these violations of neutrality. Our Government gave England notice that indemnity would be claimed for the damage done by such vessels.

The Emperor Napoleon, in 1862, proposed to Great Britain and to Russia to unite with him in a joint effort at mediation between the United States and the Confederates. Those powers declining he undertook it alone. He proposed that the two parties should appoint commissioners to deliberate upon and discuss the matters in difference, and endeavor to come to a peaceable solution. The President's reply respectfully declined the emperor's good office, and informed him that the Confederate States could, at any time, terminate the war by laying down their arms and resuming their old relations in the Union.

CHAPTER XXVII.

IMPORTANT UNION SUCCESSES.

HE operations of 1862 had given to the Union possession of the whole valley of the Mississippi from Cairo to Memphis, and from New Orleans to Baton Rouge. The Confederates still held Vicksburg and Port Hudson, with the intermediate country. The campaign against Vicksburg began in November.

General Grant was maturing his plans for a movement, and had already given orders for the forces at Memphis and Helena, in Arkansas, under General Sherman, and those at Cairo, under General McClelland, to descend the river to Vicksburg; while he himself intended to march against the Confederates in the States of Mississippi, to the north and east. But the cowardly surrender of Holly Springs, his base of supplies, by Colonel Murphy, to General Van Dorn, with all the army stores of food, clothing, ammunition, etc., compelled General Grant to fall back, and suspend the land movement.

General Sherman, meantime, moved down the Mississippi to the mouth of the Yazoo River, and prepared to attack the defences of Vicksburg and the important post of Haines' Bluff, in its vicinity. The assault was made; but the strength of the positions, the desperate defence of the Confederates, and the failure of General Grant to co-operate, induced General Sherman to suspend his attack and withdraw his forces to Milliken's Bend, twelve miles up the Mississippi River. While remaining here an expedition was sent up the Arkansas River, under General McClelland, which captured Arkansas Post, taking about 5,000 prisoners. Other small places on the White River were also taken.

During January Grant moved his army from Memphis down to Young's Point, on the west bank of the river, a few miles north of Vicksburg. The whole of February and March were spent in preparing means to get below Vicksburg with the army. On the night of April 16th he attempted to run the gunboats and transports past the batteries of Vicksburg, and march the army by land. This perilous undertaking was successfully

accomplished. One transport was struck, set on fire, and abandoned by the crew. Six more followed, one of which was sunk; but the others went through with slight injury.

A part of the army had already reached the bank of the river, and were taken on board the transports down to Grand Gulf, which was shelled by the gunboats, but proved too strong to be captured by them. The troops were again landed, and marched to a point below; while the gunboats and transports ran the batteries of Grand Gulf, and the troops crossed the river below, at Bruinsburg. The next day the army moved down to Port Gibson, and, defeating the Confederate troops that opposed them, Grand Gulf was evacuated, and possession taken by Commodore Porter.

The Capture of Vicksburg.

When General Grant, in the prosecution of his original plan, at length moved east and north from the river, he took only five days' provisions. By the 19th of May he had fought five battles and one skirmish, and had occupied Jackson, the capital of Mississippi, driving General Joseph Johnston into the interior, and General Pemberton, with about 30,000 men, into Vicksburg. While he was closing in and around Vicksburg, Commodore Porter ascended the Yazoo River; and, just as the advance of Sherman's army made its appearance at Snyder's Bluff, Commodore Porter captured Haines' Bluff just below Vicksburg, whose fourteen forts, with all their armament, fell into his hands; and the place was made thereafter the base of supplies for Grant's army.

General assaults were twice made upon Vicksburg, but without success, Grant not having troops enough completely to invest it; but, drawing re-enforcements from the army of the Ohio, General Grant was thus enabled to complete the investment, and he then commenced a regular siege. After the 26th of May firing was continued night and day. A hat was once held above a port-hole, and in two minutes was pierced with fifteen balls by the Union sharpshooters. For the first five days of the siege the garrison had full rations; but each person was afterwards reduced to fourteen and a quarter ounces of food daily. It was on the 4th of July, the nation's birthday, that the important event of Pemberton's final surrender occurred.

The indomitable courage and perseverance shown by Grant had its influence upon the whole war; not merely in the opening of the Missis-

issippi, but as it manifested to America and to the world that the Union had in this officer a master mind, with a genius for war; and this manifestation was made after the Confederates had lost Stonewall Jackson.

Grant reported that during the campaign the Confederates had lost 37,000 in prisoners, and 10,000 killed and wounded. His own loss was 1,234 killed, 7,095 wounded, 557 missing.

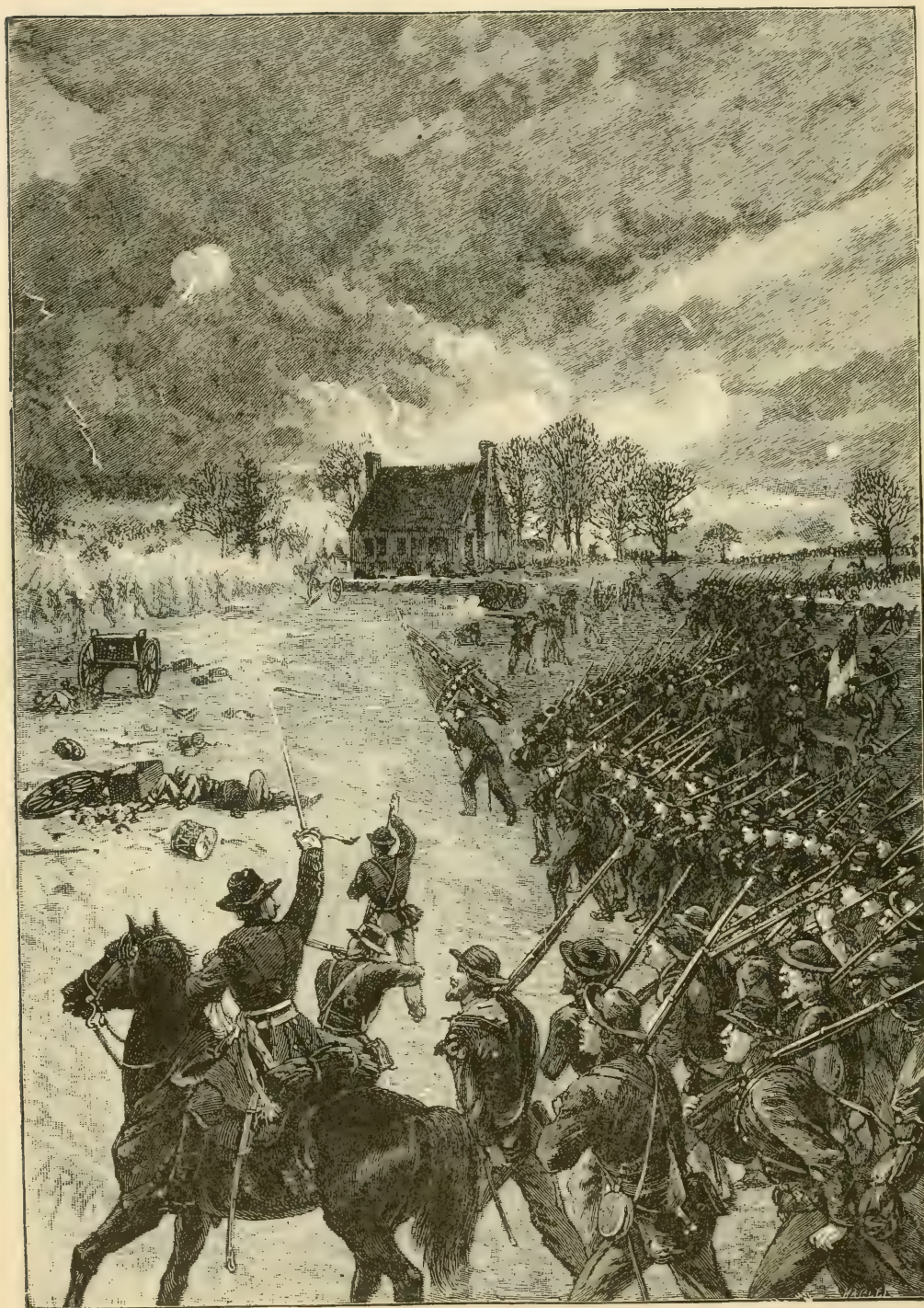
In order to aid General Grant, by destroying the communications of General Johnston with the East, an important expedition had been organized at Memphis, which, under General Grierson, marched southward through the heart of Mississippi. In his course he destroyed the Memphis and New Orleans Railroad, with many bridges, and property to a great amount. General Grierson's march terminated at Baton Rouge.

Battle of Chancellorsville.

The Mississippi was now open from its source to its mouth, and the Confederacy practically cut in twain. After the repulse of Burnside, General Lee remained at Fredericksburg, while General Hooker occupied the opposite bank of the river at Falmouth. Late in April General Hooker crossed the Rappahannock by Kelly's ford, twenty-five miles above Fredericksburg, and by the 30th had reached Chancellorsville, a few miles southwest of that place. Before moving his army, he had sent a strong cavalry force under General Stoneman to cut the railroad in Lee's rear, so as to prevent his receiving reinforcements from Richmond. Stoneman rode within a few miles of Richmond, destroyed many miles of railroad, much government property, arrived at Gloucester Point in safety, and embarked for Washington.

When news of this success reached Hooker, the bloody battle of Chancellorsville had been lost and won. On the 2d of May, the left wing of Lee's army, led by Stonewall Jackson, made a powerful attack upon Hooker's right, and after heroic deeds of valor on both sides, victory rested with the Confederates. Stonewall Jackson, to whose skill in ordering the battle this success was owing, fell mortally wounded; and so universally was he respected and admired, that the news of his death sent a thrill through both armies, and throughout the nation. The Union loss was 11,000, among them General Whipple. The loss of the Confederates is unknown. On the night of the 5th, Hooker recrossed the Rappahannock in a heavy rain storm.

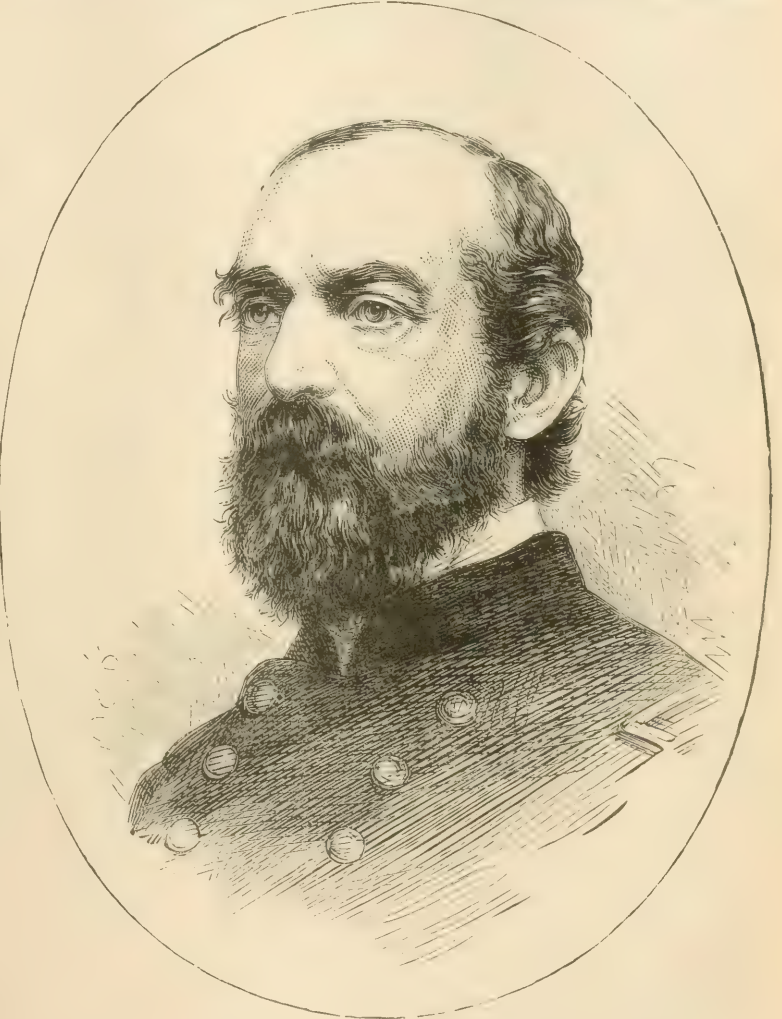
General Lee was encouraged by his victory to make another invasion



BATTLE OF CHANCELLORSVILLE. JACKSON'S ATTACK ON THE RIGHT WING.

of Maryland and Pennsylvania. His army numbered more than 100,000. He advanced by the Shenandoah valley, surprised and captured Winchester and Martinsburg, with their stores, and his march to Chambersburg was unchecked by any serious opposition.

General Hooker, however had early divined Lee's purpose and had prepared for it by sending his sick, his wounded, and his military stores to Washington. His army had been weakened by the return home of volunteers whose term of enlistment had expired, and he could expect no re-enforcements from the east. Yet Hooker had so disposed his retreating army as to deter Lee from an attack, and also to cover Washington. When Lee had reached Chambersburg, Hooker was at and near Frederick, Md. Lee's march had been rapid, and Hooker had kept pace with him. An order of President Lincoln, made at the



GENERAL GEORGE G. MEADE.

request of General Hooker, now placed General George G. Meade at the head of the army of the Potomac. This change of commander at such a critical moment was a hazardous experiment; and that no evil consequences resulted is an evidence that General Hooker had conducted his operations with skill, and had brought his army to a high state of discipline.

Both armies were marching for the same point—the village of Gettysburg in Pennsylvania, upon which many important roads converged. The army that should first occupy the town would have the advantage of choosing its position. General Reynolds, of the Union army, first passed through the village, and encountered the advance of his enemy on the heights north of the town. A brisk engagement followed, which ended by the withdrawal of the Union forces to Cemetery Hill, south of the village. During the night both armies were placed in position for the struggle of the next day. At noon General Lee began the attack, and hurled his masses with great fury and persistence upon the Federal lines.

Battle of Gettysburg.

The battle raged all the afternoon and until 9 o'clock in the evening. The Confederate General Longstreet had gained and held a piece of ground from which General Lee thought the position, on the crest of Cemetery Hill could be successfully assailed. Early the next morning General Lee renewed the attack. The contest was kept up along the whole line, but the design of Lee was to conceal his real object, which was the Cemetery Hill, the key to Meade's position. All the forenoon was occupied in arranging his batteries to bring a concentric fire upon this hill. At 1 o'clock, at a given signal, one hundred and fifty guns opened a simultaneous fire, and within five minutes the crest of the hill was swept entirely bare. This rain of iron hail fell incessantly for three hours. General Howard, who commanded the hill, had withdrawn behind the crest, and for two hours scarcely replied to the storm.

General Lee, supposing the Federal guns silenced, ordered his columns to scale the hill. As they approach, a terrible fire of grape, shell, and canister, is opened upon them from forty guns. They press forward, charging over the rifle-pits, and up to the muzzles of the guns. A scorching fire of infantry is now poured into their thinned and broken ranks. They reel, they fall back. A regiment throws down its arms and surrenders. All along the field, smaller detachments do the same; and the escaped are seen flying, a disordered mass, over the plain. The celebrated charge of the Confederate General Pickett was one of the most daring exploits of the war. He was driven back with great loss. The battle was ended; and during the night the combatants, tired and exhausted, slept.

The morning of the 4th was spent by both armies in burying the



GENERAL PICKETT'S FAMOUS CHARGE AT GETTYSBURG.

dead, and caring for the wounded. In the afternoon it rained heavily. During the night, Lee began his retreat, and by the 11th was at Williamsport, near the Potomac. On the night of the 13th, he succeeded in taking his army over the Potomac at Falling Waters and Williamsport. The Federal loss at Gettysburg was 2,834 killed, 13,790 wounded, 6,643 missing. The Confederate loss was larger—4,500 being buried on the field by the Union soldiers, and 40,121 were taken prisoners, 26,500 of whom were wounded. Nearly one-half of Lee's army was destroyed or taken.

General Meade continued his pursuit until July 25th, when Lee had retired south of the Rapidan, and Meade was near Warrenton. The two armies occupied nearly the same quarters that they had two months before, and so remained all winter.

The famous Confederate John Morgan was sent on a raid into Indiana and Ohio this year, to create diversions in favor of Lee, and prevent reinforcements being forwarded to Generals Grant and Hooker. He passed, in June, from Tennessee, near Burksville, on the Cumberland River, up through Kentucky to Brandenburg, on the Ohio, and then crossed into Indiana, with a force of about 4,500 cavalry. He marched through Cincinnati, made a detour a little north of that city, and pursued his way to Pomeroy, where he expected to cross, at Buffington's Island, into Kentucky.

Pursuit and Capture of General Morgan.

Here he was overtaken by General Hobson, and his force partly dispersed and captured. He was taken prisoner with 500 men, by Colonel Shackelford, five days after, near New Lisbon. He had caused great alarm, and done much damage on his route, by the destruction of bridges, railroads, and other property, and by taking horses and levying on the inhabitants for food and forage.

This raid was part of the general plan of which Lee's invasion of Pennsylvania was the great feature, to transfer the war to the North. It is probable that aid was expected from the disaffected people in the Middle and Western States, whose numbers and influence were greatly over-estimated at the South. There was practically no party; there was only a small and contemptible faction, who would have made peace at the price of a divided Union, and a dissevered country.

During the summer of 1863, the Confederate cruisers "Alabama" and "Florida" inflicted great damage upon American commerce. They at first

cruised in the West Indies, and had little difficulty in escaping the Federal war vessels by retiring, when hard pressed, into neutral ports.

The "Florida" was captured October 7th, in the neutral port of Brazil, by Captain Collins, of the "Wachusett." The "Vanderbilt," given to the government by Captain Vanderbilt, one of the swiftest and strongest steamers in the navy, made an unavailing chase after the "Alabama" across the Atlantic to Cape Town, and then through the Indian Ocean.

Strategic Operations in Tennessee.

The winter of 1863 was spent by the opposing armies in Tennessee in recruiting and preparing for the summer campaign. The only military operations were mutual raids to interrupt each other's communications, cut off and destroy trains and supplies.

From January to June the Union army, under General Rosecrans, lay at Murfreesboro. Supplies were brought forward, and a large fortified depot was established. A cavalry force was also organized and equipped. Bragg's army, meantime, occupied a line on the north of Duck River, with his main base at Chattanooga, and a depot at Tullahoma. On the 23d of June Rosecrans began the campaign, and, by a series of strategic movements, turned Bragg's position, and compelled him to abandon Tullahoma, which he did on the 30th. By the 5th of July Middle Tennessee was in possession of Rosecrans, and Bragg had crossed the Tennessee River at various points, fortifying himself in Chattanooga. This important result was obtained without any severe battle, and with but few slight skirmishes, in which Rosecrans lost 85 killed, 462 wounded, and 13 missing. He captured 1,634 prisoners.

The next object was to capture Chattanooga, which commanded the route towards Atlanta and Georgia. The railroads between the Tennessee River and Nashville were first repaired, and were in condition for use July 25th, when Sheridan's division occupied Stevenson and Bridgeport. Between the 16th and 29th of August the army had crossed the Tennessee Mountains, and by the 4th of September had passed the Tennessee River. Passing the Sand Mountains and Lookout Mountain, on the 18th of September, the army was concentrated near Crawfish Springs, in the valley of the Chickamauga. Meanwhile Bragg had retreated to La Fayette, Georgia, where, being reinforced by Longstreet's division from Virginia, he again moved towards Chattanooga. It was near midnight when Longstreet

reached Bragg's headquarters. He was placed in command of the left wing. A new disposition of the forces was made, and it was ordered that the action should commence at daybreak on the morrow, which was Sunday.



LONGSTREET'S ARRIVAL AT BRAGG'S HEADQUARTERS.

On the morning of the 19th began the battle of Chickamauga, by an attack led by General Thomas upon Bragg's right. The battle became general along the whole line, and lasted all day, without material advantage to either side, darkness closing the contest. The next morning Bragg renewed the fight by an overwhelming assault upon the Union centre, commanded by Davis and Sheridan, piercing the line and cutting the army in twain. The right wing was driven in confusion from the field, and retreated

in great haste to Chattanooga, General Rosecrans being carried along with the other fugitives.

The left wing, under General Thomas, maintained its ground, repulsed every assault, held its position until night, and then withdrew in good order to Rossville. Remaining there all the next day, General Thomas at night marched to Chattanooga. His skill and conduct saved the army. On the night of September 30th Bragg dispatched Wheeler's cavalry across the Tennessee River, above Chattanooga, with directions to cut Rosecrans' communications. Wheeler was closely followed by Generals McCook and Mitchell, who defeated him in two actions, and drove him out of Tennessee before he could do any damage to the railroads.

The Federal Armies United.

After the battle of Chickamauga, the three departments of the Ohio, the Cumberland, and the Tennessee were combined, and named the Military Division of the Mississippi, General Grant assuming command. The Army of the Cumberland was at Chattanooga; the Army of the Ohio, under General Burnside, was at Knoxville; General W. T. Sherman, with Blair's division of the Army of the Mississippi, was on his march from Memphis to re-enforce Rosecrans; and Hooker's corps, from the Army of the Potomac, was on the way to Chattanooga. General Thomas, who had succeeded General Rosecrans in the command of the Army of the Cumberland, ordered Hooker to occupy Bridgeport. General Grant, arriving at Chattanooga October 23, approved and executed the plans of General Thomas.

Bragg's army was strongly posted on the heights around and below Chattanooga, and unless he could be dislodged that place was untenable. A series of movements, planned by General Thomas, wrested from Bragg the positions that commanded the river, and opened it as a channel of supplies, which had previously been brought in wagons sixty miles across the mountains. Early in November, and while Grant was concentrating his forces, Bragg weakened his army by detaching Longstreet to attack Burnside at Knoxville.

November 16, General Sherman reached Bridgeport, and November 23, crossing the river, fortified himself on Missionary Ridge. Grant now ordered the attack upon Bragg's position. It was begun by General Thomas, who drove the Confederates from their front line, interposing one of his corps between them and the river. The same morning Hooker scaled the

western slope of Lookout Mountain, drove the Confederates from their rifle-pits, capturing many prisoners, with small loss. The next morning he took possession of the top of the mountain, and swept across Lookout valley to Rossville. His march was for hours among the clouds that enveloped the mountains, hiding the army from view, their course being indicated by the report and echoes of their guns.

At the same time General Sherman assailed Bragg's right, gaining and holding a line close to his rifle-pits. General Thomas also assaulted Bragg's centre, his troops nimbly climbing the steep sides of Missionary Ridge, carrying the summit, and dashing irresistibly through and over the Confederate works. Bragg, believing the heights impregnable, delayed his own retreat until the Unionists were close upon him, and in his haste he could not save his personal effects. By midnight his army was in full retreat, leaving on the field thousands of small arms, and a large part of his artillery.

Hasty Retreat of General Longstreet.

General Grant, without delay, ordered Sherman, with a strong body of men, to the relief of Burnside, now sorely pressed by Longstreet. The city had been furiously assailed by the best division of Lee's army of Northern Virginia, and had been gallantly and successfully defended. The approach of Sherman caused Longstreet to raise the siege, and retreat towards Virginia. Sherman's advance entered Knoxville on the night of December 3, and he arrived on the 16th. Remaining a few days to advise with Burnside about the pursuit of Longstreet, and leaving Granger's corps at Knoxville, with the rest of his division he returned by slow marches to Chattanooga.

General Grant's loss in the campaign was 757 killed, 4529 wounded, and 330 missing. He captured 239 officers, 5903 privates, 40 guns, and 7000 small arms. The Confederate loss is not known, but it must have been at least equal to Grant's.

In March, 1863, Congress passed an act requiring an enrolment of all the able-bodied male citizens of the United States. The whole country was divided into districts, for each of which a provost-marshal was appointed, subordinate to a provost-marshal-general at Washington. The enrolment was rapidly completed, amidst some excitement and dissatisfaction. The result showed that the number of men, between the ages of eighteen and forty-five years, liable to military duty, and not in the army, was 3,113,305.

The draft was ordered to be made in July. One-fifth of the number enrolled was assumed as the quota of each district. As the day approached for the drawing to begin threats were publicly made of forcible opposition. In many of the large cities combinations to resist were secretly formed. The draft, however, was made, and in most places without opposition. But in New York city, on the second day, the office of one of the provost-marshals was assailed and demolished by a mob. A fearful riot followed, which raged for four days. Many houses and stores were sacked and burned. The fury of the mob was directed against prominent Union men, soldiers and citizens, many of whom were brutally murdered. Armories, gun-stores and rifle-factories were plundered.

Great Destruction of Life and Property.

The negroes were especially the objects of the fiendish hate and assault of the mob. They were knocked down, robbed and killed, without pity. The Colored Orphan Asylum was entered, its inmates thrust into the streets, and the building fired. Property valued at three or four millions of dollars was destroyed. Governor Seymour visited the city, and by public speech and private influence strove to save the city from violence. But reason and persuasion failed. Martial law was proclaimed, and the United States troops, under the direction of General Wool, aided by the admirable police of the city, finally suppressed the riot. It is said that more than a thousand lives were lost. A similar riot occurred in the city of Troy. In Boston, Portsmouth, and other places, the mob spirit was promptly quelled. This, and subsequent drafts, were completed without a recurrence of violence.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

CAMPAIGNS OF SHERMAN AND GRANT.

THE close of the year 1863 left the Federal government in possession of the Mississippi River, and also of all the important ports on the Atlantic coast and Gulf of Mexico, except Wilmington, Charleston, and Mobile. The Confederacy still had two large armies, under two able commanders. Lee, in Virginia and North Carolina, at the head of 150,000, and Johnston, in Georgia, at the head of 60,000. The United States had, probably, twice that number in the field, besides those in forts and garrisons.

The clash of arms ceased during the beginning of the winter. The lull was broken by expeditions preparatory to the final struggle. General Sherman, February 3d, marched from Vicksburg, with 30,000 men, to Meridian, reaching the place on the 15th. Here he expected to be joined by a cavalry force of 7,000, under Gen. W. F. Smith, who set out from Memphis on the 11th. But General Smith was met and checked by superior forces, under Forrest, and fell back to Memphis.

General Sherman occupied Meridian for a week, and then returned, February 26, to Vicksburg, having destroyed 200 miles of railroad, with cars and connections, sixty-seven bridges, thousands of bales of cotton, and millions of bushels of corn. This destruction of communications and property crippled the Confederates, and had a damaging effect upon all their operations for the year.

General Johnston sent a force from Dalton to oppose the march of Sherman, supposing his object to be Mobile. To counteract this movement, General Grant ordered General Palmer to advance towards Dalton, and threaten an attack upon Johnston. The army moved forward within two miles of Dalton, but, after some slight skirmishes, withdrew to Ringgold. General Schofield, who had superseded General Burnside in East Tennessee, moved against General Longstreet, who had wintered there. Longstreet retreated into Virginia, rejoining Lee.

An expedition designing to occupy Florida, consisting of twenty

steamers and eight schooners, with 5,000 men, under General Gillmore, sailed from Hilton Head. The army began its march immediately, under General Seymour, and by the 15th, after slight skirmishing, reached Baldwin. Continuing the march, on the 20th they encountered General Finnegan, at Olustee; and, after suffering a disastrous defeat, returned to Jacksonville.

A formidable expedition for the capture of Shreveport, on the Red River, and the occupation of Western Louisiana, was organized under General Banks, at New Orleans. A large fleet under Rear-Admiral Porter, consisting of three monitors, seven iron-clads, and ten other vessels, was collected at the mouth of Red river. March 12th, the expedition began the ascent of the river. On the 14th, Fort De Russy was captured. The Confederate forces, under Gen. Dick Taylor, were defeated in two encounters, on the 21st, at Henderson Hill, and the 28th, at Cane river. On the morning of April 6th, the whole army, which had been concentrated at Alexandria and Grand Ecore, moved from the latter place, and engaged the Confederates at Pleasant Hill, very soon succeeding in driving them in disorder from the field.

Heavy Losses of the Union Army.

On the morning of the 8th, the advance of General Banks, consisting of about 8,000 men, reached Sabine Cross Roads; while General Franklin, with the Nineteenth Corps, was in camp nine miles in the rear, and General Smith, with half of the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Corps, was twenty miles in the rear. Gen. Dick Taylor fell with his whole force upon General Banks, and, before General Franklin could come to his aid, defeated him, with a loss of 2,000 men, and the whole of his transportation train. Banks retreated during the night to Pleasant Hill, followed by Taylor, and a second battle ensued, in which the Confederates were driven from the field. But Banks' victory was barren, and his losses so great, that the next morning, leaving his dead unburied, he began his retreat towards Alexandria, where he arrived April 27th. Here he was detained until May 14th.

The water in the river was so low that the gunboats could not descend the falls, until Lieutenant-Colonel Bailey suggested the construction of wing-dams on each side of the river, leaving a channel fifty feet wide in the middle. His suggestion was carried into effect, under his own super-

intendence: the fleet passed safely over the falls, and reached the mouth of Red River, May 16th. The army returned to New Orleans, and the fleet to its station on the Mississippi. The expedition was a disastrous failure, with the loss of 3,000 men, 20 pieces of artillery, 1,200 horses and mules, and immense quantities of army stores.

General Steele left his station at Little Rock, Ark., March 23d, to co-operate with General Banks. He reached Arkadelphia the 28th. April 16th, he was joined by General Thayer, who had marched from Fort Smith. After several severe skirmishes, in which he was successful, he occupied Camden, where he remained until the 26th. In the meantime, having heard of the defeat and retreat of General Banks, he retraced his steps, reaching Little Rock, May 2d.

April 19th, a Confederate force under General Hoke, aided by the ram "Albemarle," attacked Plymouth, N. C., commanded by Gen. H. W. Wessels, carried the place by assault, and captured the entire garrison and armament. The gunboat "Smithfield" was almost immediately sunk, and the "Miami" considerably disabled.

Frightful Slaughter of Negro Troops.

During the months of March and April, the Confederate General Forrest entered Kentucky, captured Union City and its garrison, and, March 24th, attacked Paducah, but was repulsed by Colonel Hicks. On the morning of April 13th, Forrest attacked Fort Pillow, Tenn., garrisoned by a detachment of Tennessee cavalry and by the first regiment of Alabama colored troops, under Major Booth. The garrison refused to surrender, and fought bravely until 3 o'clock in the afternoon; when, the fort being carried by assault, the men threw down their arms, but, being of the negro race, they were massacred without mercy.

The guerilla John Morgan entered Kentucky, through Pound Gap, in the latter part of May, with two or three thousand men. After his capture in Ohio, he had escaped from prison. He attacked Cynthiana June 11th, and captured the garrison. On the 12th, he was met by General Burbridge, routed with loss, and driven out of the State. This dreaded raider was subsequently killed at Greenville, Tenn., while attempting to escape in the night, from a house which was surrounded by Union troops under the command of General Gillem.

The army of the Potomac had lain on the north side of the Rapidan

from December, 1863, until May, 1864. The army of General Lee was encamped on the south side of the same river. The first important movement in the spring was the expedition under General Kilpatrick, who left Stevensburg February 28th with about 8,000 men, and crossed the Rapidan at Germania and Ely's Ford, about sixty miles from Richmond. He struck the Virginia Central railroad at Frederickshall, and tore it up for several miles. He then detached Colonel Dahlgren towards the James River Canal, and moved himself to Ashland. The detachment under Colonel Dahlgren was misled by a negro guide, and, failing to rejoin Kilpatrick at Ashland, was defeated in a skirmish with Lieutenant-Colonel Pollard. Colonel Dahlgren was killed, and sixty of his men captured. Kilpatrick went within six miles of Richmond. Unable to approach nearer, he moved down the peninsula, effecting a junction with General Butler at Tunstall's Station, on the York River railroad.

Promotion of General Grant.

Congress, February 29th, passed an act reviving the grade of Lieutenant-General. The President approved the act, and immediately sent to the Senate the name of Ulysses S. Grant, whose nomination was confirmed March 3d. General Grant coming to Washington, his commission was presented to him by President Lincoln, in the presence of the Cabinet and other distinguished persons. His first order, assuming command of the armies of the United States, was issued from his headquarters at Nashville. By direction of the President he assigned the military division of the Mississippi, composed of the Departments of the Ohio, the Tennessee, the Cumberland, and the Arkansas, to Major-General W. T. Sherman; and the army of the Tennessee was placed under the direct command of Major-General J. B. McPherson.

November 25th, in the night, a number of fires were set in the city of New York, simultaneously, in different places. They were clearly the work of incendiaries. The police subsequently arrested Robert Kennedy, in the cars near Detroit. He was tried and convicted of setting fire to Barnum's Museum, Lovejoy's Hotel, Tammany Hall and the New England House. He said he had five accomplices, who each set fire to their boarding-houses. They all stayed in the city the next day, and then escaped to Canada. He further stated that he and his accomplices were hired to burn the city of New York by Confederate agents in Canada. The reason

assigned in justification of the crime was the desolation of the Shenandoah Valley by General Sheridan.

October 19th a raid from Canada upon St. Albans, Vermont, was made by a party, twenty or thirty in number, claiming to be in the Confederate service. They robbed the St. Albans' Bank of fifty thousand dollars, stole horses enough to mount the party, fired upon unarmed citizens, and set fire to a hotel. Some of them were arrested in Canada and brought to trial, but were discharged unpunished. The Canadian government, however, refunded a part of the money. This was the only successful raid among many planned by Confederates in Canada, aided and encouraged by sympathizing friends.

General Grant, whose labors had hitherto been done in the West, left Nashville a fortnight after being made Commander-in-chief, and established his headquarters with the Army of the Potomac.

Soldiers Calmly Preparing for Death.

Between the battle of Gettysburg, July 3, 1863, and the close of the year, General Meade had followed Lee, until the latter took post on a strong line south of the Rapidan, a few miles east of Gordonsville. The campaign had been one of manœuvres, by which each had sought to gain some position where he could fight his antagonist at a disadvantage. At one time Meade crossed the Rapidan, near a small stream called Mine Run, and drew up his troops in order of battle. The soldiers, who knew the strength of Lee's position, conscious of the desperate and hopeless task before them, calmly prepared for death.

Each one wrote on a slip of paper his name, his company, regiment and residence, and pinned it to his clothes, so that his dead body might be recognized by his friends. Meade did not put them to the test. He recrossed the Rapidan to his camp, and thus the two armies confronted each other all winter. Both were strongly reinforced, and improved in drill and discipline. Longstreet was recalled by Lee from East Tennessee, and his corps was encamped near Gordonsville. Lee also summoned to his aid all the troops that could be spared from the Carolinas. On the Union side the army of the Potomac was increased to nearly 100,000, and Burnside's corps, transferred from East Tennessee, was held in reserve.

Meade's army was composed of three corps: the Second, Fifth and Sixth, commanded respectively by Generals Hancock, Warren and Sedg-

wick. General Sheridan commanded the cavalry; General H. J. Hunt was chief of artillery; Major Duane, chief engineer, and General Ingalls, quartermaster. Although Grant had supreme direction, all orders were issued by Meade.

As co-operative movements, General Butler, with 30,000 men, was at Fortress Monroe, ready to threaten Richmond by the James river; and General Sigel, with 17,000 men, was in West Virginia—one column in the Shenandoah Valley, and another, under General Crook, in the Valley of the Kanawha.

The army of the Potomac moved on the night of the 3d of May. The right column, under Warren and Sedgwick, crossed at Germania Ford, and the left, under Hancock, at Ely's Ford, six miles below. During the 4th the army crossed the river, and at night encamped on the battlefield of Chancellorsville.

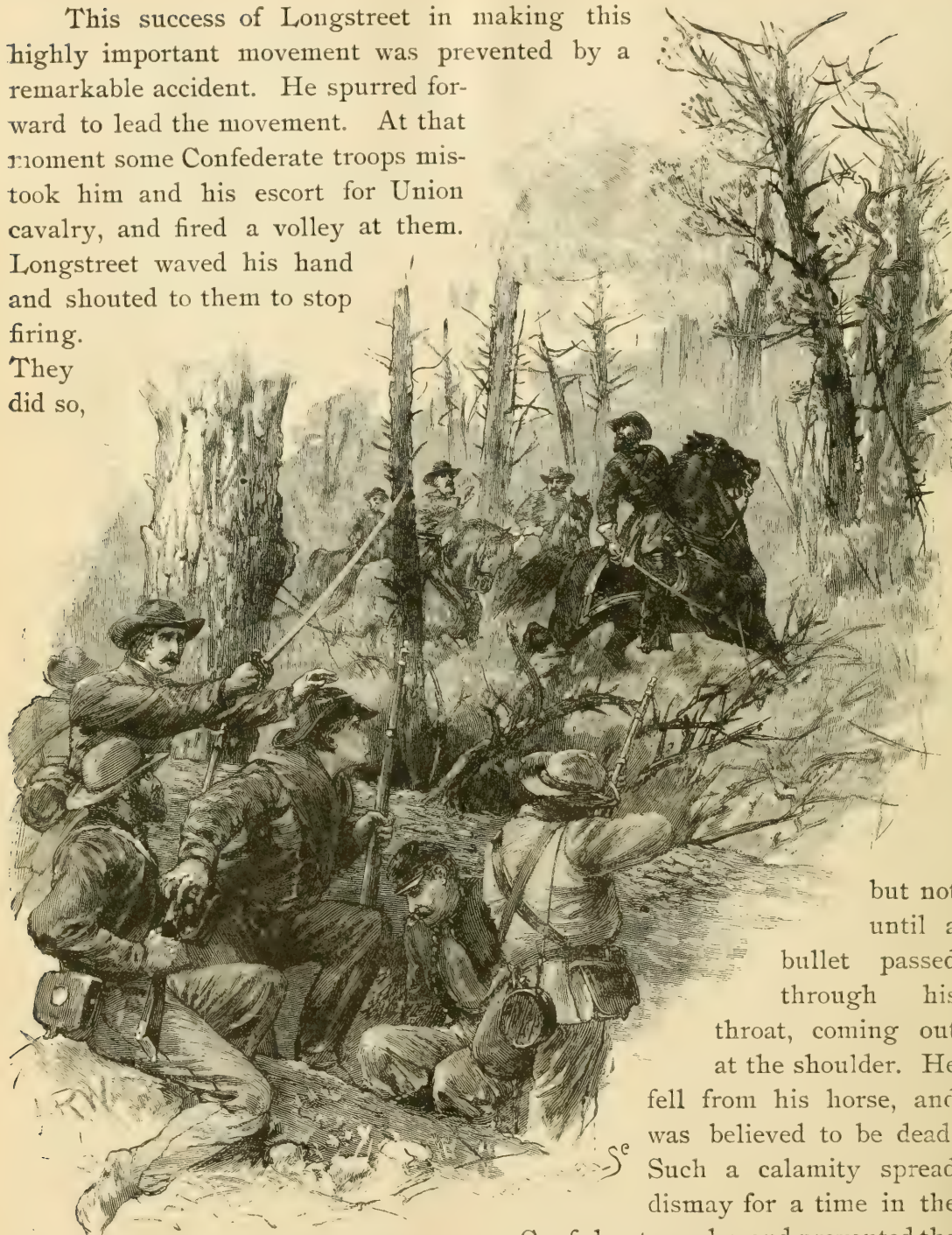
Clever Tactics of Lee and Longstreet.

General Lee did not oppose the crossing. His right was turned. His force, consisting of three corps, extended from Somerville Ford to Gordonsville—Longstreet's corps near the latter place, Hill's in the vicinity of Orange Court-house, and Ewell's to the right and along the Rapidan. On the morning of the 5th General Meade put his forces in motion, intending to place himself between the Confederate army and Gordonsville. But General Lee, to foil this plan, marched his army rapidly to the east, on the Orange and Frederick plank-road and turnpike, and assailed Meade in the Wilderness.

The country so called is a region where mining operations had been carried on, and the original forest having been cleared away, the land was rocky and uneven, overspread with a thick growth of low, scraggy pines and scrub-oaks. Cavalry could not penetrate it, and artillery could not be dragged over it. It was just such a field as that on which Braddock had been lured to destruction. It was a battle of musketry only, and only Indian tactics prevailed.

Before noon Longstreet fell upon Hancock's left with such fierceness that it was forced to the Brock road, which Longstreet determined to seize. Should he succeed in doing so Grant would be forced to retreat to the Rapidan under circumstances as disastrous as his predecessors, who had invariably fallen back from before Lee.

This success of Longstreet in making this highly important movement was prevented by a remarkable accident. He spurred forward to lead the movement. At that moment some Confederate troops mistook him and his escort for Union cavalry, and fired a volley at them. Longstreet waved his hand and shouted to them to stop firing. They did so,



WOUNDING OF GENERAL LONGSTREET BY HIS OWN MEN.

but not until a bullet passed through his throat, coming out at the shoulder. He fell from his horse, and was believed to be dead. Such a calamity spread dismay for a time in the Confederate ranks, and prevented the success of the movement.

Lee expected, by his sudden and fierce onset, in a place where cavalry and artillery were useless, and his sharpshooters were at home, to drive Grant back over the Rapidan. Grant hoped to destroy Lee's army by the weight of his superior masses. Both failed.

The Civil War here presented the melancholy spectacle of 15,000 Union and 8000 Confederate dead. The Union General Wadsworth was killed, and Generals Seymour and Shaler taken prisoners. General Longstreet was badly wounded, and disabled for the rest of the campaign.

Battle of Spottsylvania Court-House.

General Grant, on the 7th, directed his army to move to Spottsylvania Court-house, and turn Lee's right. General Meade set the army early in motion, hoping to plant it between Lee and Richmond. The Confederate general was first on the ground, and intrenched. For twelve days the armies faced each other, Lee acting on the defensive. All attempts to break through his lines failed. One was attended with partial success. General Hancock, before daylight, carried the first line of Lee's works in the centre, taking 4000 prisoners and twenty guns.

The ground thus gained was held, although General Lee in his endeavor to recapture it, kept up the contest until midnight, a continuous battle of twenty hours. It was the fiercest and bloodiest struggle of the campaign. General Grant afterwards made repeated attempts to find a weak point in Lee's lines, but they were impregnable.

Here General Sheridan was detached with his three divisions of cavalry, numbering 12,000 men, with thirty-two pieces of field artillery, under Generals Gregg, Merritt, and Wilson, besides those left with the army for picket and orderly duty, upon an expedition to the Confederate rear. The raid was designed to cut Lee's communications, by destroying in part the railroads between him and Richmond, to threaten, and, if practicable, seize that city, and to open communications with the army of the James.

General Sheridan succeeded in burning Beaver Dam and Ashland Stations, with an immense accumulation of supplies, and in tearing up more than twenty miles of railroad. Near Beaver Dam he overtook and recaptured nearly 400 Union prisoners, including Colonels Phelps and Tally. He proceeded towards Richmond, met and defeated the Confederate cavalry at Yellow Tavern, eight miles north of the city, in a sharp combat, which resulted in the death of General J. E. B. Stuart.

Sheridan pushed on, carried the first line of the defences of Richmond, again encountered the Confederate cavalry, reinforced by the Home Guards and other infantry, strongly intrenched, and after foiling a desperate effort to entrap his command, succeeded by hard fighting in forcing the passage at Meadow Bridge, and withdrawing to the north side of the Chickahominy. Thence proceeding through Mechanicsville, he again met and defeated the Confederates, and then pushed on to Haxall's Landing, on the James river, where he communicated with General Butler at Bermuda Hundred. Here he embarked his force on transports, and rejoined the Army of the Potomac.

On the same day that Meade crossed the Rapidan, General Butler embarked his troops on board of transports at Fortress Monroe, and sailed up the James river, convoyed by a fleet of gunboats. The next day he effected a landing at City Point and Port Powhatan, but disembarked his main body at Bermuda Hundred, a neck of land lying between the Appomattox and James rivers, ten miles north of Petersburg, and twenty miles south of Richmond. General Beauregard quickly drew all available forces from the south, foiled Butler's attempts upon Petersburg and Richmond, attacked him on the 16th, and drove him within his lines between the forks of the two rivers, and, intrenching in his front, covered the railroad and both cities. General Beauregard then reinforced Lee, who also was now joined by the troops under Breckinridge, from Tennessee.

Union Troops Headed toward Richmond.

General Sigel, advancing up the Shenandoah, was defeated at New Market, May 15, when he was superseded by General Hunter, who in his turn defeated the Confederates at Piedmont. Hunter marched to Lynchburg, but finding the place too strongly defended, he turned back by a route through West Virginia, bringing his command safely through.

The twelve days' conflict at Spottsylvania was ended by another turning movement, which began by the march of Hancock's corps towards Richmond. The point aimed at was the line of the North Anna river. The two armies were soon in motion, and moving on parallel lines, the whole object of Lee being to interpose himself continually between Grant and Richmond. Grant crossed the North Anna river, but Lee still was able to intrench himself in an unassailable position, and again Grant, by a flank movement, reached Cold Harbor, once more to be confronted by Lee,

in a position in advance of the Chickahominy, covering the Virginia Central, and the Fredericksburg and Richmond railroads.

An attack was made at five o'clock in the evening on Lee's lines by the Sixth Corps, and the troops under General William F. Smith, just arrived from General Butler's army. The attack was successful, and the ground gained held against repeated assaults. An attack was made along the whole line, and within twenty minutes more than ten thousand men



BATTLE OF COLD HARBOR.

fell before they could reach the Confederate lines. Some hours later General Meade ordered a second advance, and the men unanimously refused to obey.

General Grant, June 14, transferred his army south of the James river. He then ordered General Butler to send General Smith, during the night, against Petersburg. The movement was not prompt, and General Smith, instead of marching into Petersburg, which was then undefended, rested over-night. The next morning it was too late. All that could be done was to carry the outer works. A good position was gained, and the army proceeded to envelop Petersburg towards the Southside railroad, as far as possible, without attacking fortifications.

As early as the 7th of June, General Sheridan had been sent on a

raid towards Gordonsville, there to effect a junction, if possible, with General Hunter, and destroy the Virginia Central railroad. General Sheridan reached Trevilian Station, where he encountered and defeated a body of cavalry, and destroyed about twelve miles of railroad. Hearing nothing of General Hunter he turned back, and on the 25th crossed the James river at Powhatan and rejoined the army.

Between the 22d and 30th of June, Generals Wilson and Kautz made a cavalry raid against the railroads, south of Richmond. General Wilson reached Burkesville Station, and destroyed twenty-five miles of the Danville railroad. The Southside road and the Weldon road were both damaged. The expedition then returned, but with the loss of its artillery.

A Regiment and Battery Blown Up.

For some weeks in July the Ninth Army Corps had been engaged in digging a mine under one of the Confederate forts. Before springing the mine a demonstration was made on the north side of the James river against the New Market road, to induce the sending of troops away from the Petersburg defences. On the morning of the 30th, between four and five o'clock, the mine was sprung, blowing up a battery and most of a regiment. The advance of the assaulting column, formed of the Ninth Corps, took possession of the crater made by the explosion. Not being properly supported they were driven back with great slaughter. The failure to take the fort, the capture of which was certain to compel the evacuation of Petersburg, was a bitter disappointment to General Grant and the nation.

The occupation of the Weldon railroad, the completion of a railroad from City Point to the Weldon railroad, facilitating the transit of troops, arms, and supplies through the Union lines, the capture of Fort Harrison, north of the James river, and a futile attempt to extend the Federal lines to the Southside railroad, were the most important events in the siege of Petersburg and Richmond until the final grand advance.

Here we break the current of our narrative and turn our attention to the movements of General Sherman. It was on the 14th of March that General Sherman took command of the Department of the Mississippi. He had three armies encamped in and around Chattanooga—the Army of the Cumberland, General Thomas commanding, 60,773 men; the Army of the Tennessee, General McPherson commanding, 24,465 men; and the Army of the Ohio, General Schofield commanding, 13,559 men. The whole was

composed of 88,188 infantry, 6149 cavalry, and 4460 artillery; or, 98,797 men and 254 guns. To supply this army there was but a single line of railroad from Louisville, Kentucky, through Nashville to Chattanooga. By the first of May the depots at Nashville and Chattanooga were well filled with supplies of provisions and military stores, and everything in readiness for an onward march.

The Confederates lay in and about Dalton, thirty-eight miles south of Chattanooga. Their force was estimated at 50,000 infantry and 10,000 cavalry, mostly veterans, under the command of General Joseph E. Johnston, an able general, second only, and by some deemed superior, to General Lee in military skill and capacity. What he lacked in numbers was made up in the rugged and defensible character of the country. His position at Dalton was well fortified, and the hundred miles to Atlanta was the most impracticable region over which an aggressive march was ever undertaken.

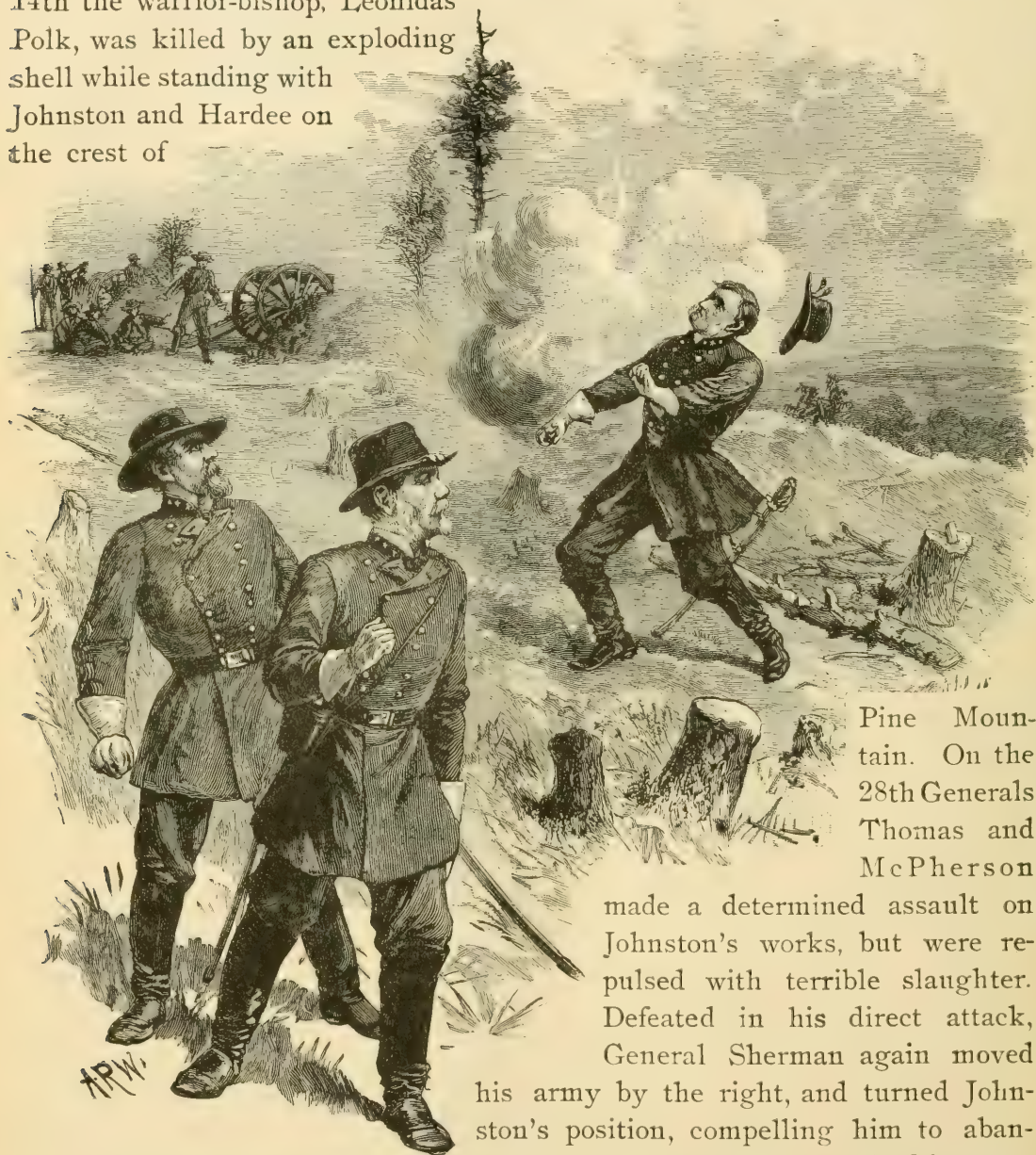
Retreat of General Johnston.

General Sherman began his movement May 6th. He found the position at Buzzard's Roost too strong to be assaulted. General McPherson was sent through Snake Gap to turn it, while Generals Thomas and Schofield threatened it in front and on the north. The movement was successful. General Johnston, finding his retreat likely to be cut off, fell back to his fortified position at Resaca. Here he was attacked, and a heavy battle ensued May 15th. During the night Johnston retreated. His rear-guard was overtaken and attacked at Adairsville. Severe skirmishing ensued.

He continued his retreat until the 19th, when he crossed the Etowah river. While these operations were going on General Jefferson C. Davis' division of Thomas' army was sent to Rome, which, with its forts and artillery, its valuable mills and foundries, was captured and destroyed. After resting a few days, General Sherman put his army in motion for Dallas, with a view to turn the difficult pass of Alatoona. On the 25th General Hooker had a severe battle with a part of Hood's and Hardee's corps, driving them back to New Hope Church. Of several encounters, at and near Dallas, the most important was a desperate assault upon McPherson, which met with a bloody repulse.

On the 4th of June Johnston retreated to the strong positions of Pine, Kenesaw and Lost mountains. For several days there was incessant skirmishing. In the meantime the Federal army was reinforced by General

Blair, with two divisions of the Seventeenth Army Corps.; and the Confederate army by the Georgia militia and accessions of cavalry. On the 14th the warrior-bishop, Leonidas Polk, was killed by an exploding shell while standing with Johnston and Hardee on the crest of



DEATH OF GENERAL POLK.

Pine Mountain. On the 28th Generals Thomas and McPherson

made a determined assault on Johnston's works, but were repulsed with terrible slaughter. Defeated in his direct attack, General Sherman again moved

his army by the right, and turned Johnston's position, compelling him to abandon Kenesaw and retreat, July 3d, across the Chattahoochee. Both armies rested

in comparative quiet, the time being occupied by General Sherman in manœuvres and movements for the purpose of crossing the Chattahoochee

and turning Johnston's position, which had been carefully chosen, and strongly fortified, as the last defence of Atlanta. On the 17th General Sherman had crossed the Chattahoochee, and by the 20th had forced Johnston into his intrenchments in front of Atlanta, and here General Johnston was, by order of President Davis, superseded in command by General J. B. Hood.

General Hood immediately assumed the offensive, and made, during the latter part of July, several desperate assaults upon General Sherman's lines. The most determined attack was on July 22, during which the brave and accomplished General McPherson was killed. Hood was defeated in every attempt, and his army suffered losses which could not be repaired. The Confederate loss in this battle, the bloodiest in the campaign, was about 12,000 killed, wounded and prisoners, while that of the Federals was 3,722. General Logan succeeded General McPherson in command, until superseded by Major-General Howard.

Three Expeditions Sent Forward.

During the month of August General Sherman partially invested Atlanta. In the meantime three expeditions, under Generals McCook, Garrard and Stoneman, were made to cut the railroads south of Atlanta. The first was successful; the others failed. General Rousseau had previously made a successful raid upon the Atlanta and Montgomery railroad, and its branches near Opelika. About the same time, also, the Confederate General Wheeler left Atlanta with a large force of cavalry, intending to cut General Sherman's communications in the rear. He crossed the railroad near Dalton, passed into East Tennessee, and then went to McMinnville, Murfreesboro, and Franklin, and finally into Alabama. The damage done by him was repaired in a few days.

General Sherman becoming convinced that he could not completely invest Atlanta, decided to move round Hood's left flank upon the Montgomery and Macon railroad, and thus draw him from his fortifications. Hood was compelled to abandon Atlanta, and being defeated at Rough and Ready, at Jonesboro and Lovejoy's, he retreated south. On the 2d General Slocum entered the city, and General Sherman, desisting from the pursuit of Hood, returned and encamped around it on the 8th.

While General Sherman was marching and fighting his way towards Atlanta the single line of railroad from Nashville, by which alone he

could receive supplies, had to be guarded the whole distance. The Confederate General Forrest, in Northern Mississippi, was meditating an attack upon it, to cut off Sherman's retreat should he meet with a serious reverse. General Sherman, therefore, directed General Washburne to send General Sturgis, with the forces in West Tennessee, to operate against Forrest. On the morning of the 10th of June General Sturgis met Forrest near Guntown, Mississippi, was badly beaten, and retreated in utter confusion hotly pursued, to Memphis. But the conflict defeated Forrest's designs against Sherman.

The movements of General Sherman were in keeping with the plan to divide the Confederacy, and break it up. Already the Union armies held a strong position in the central part of those States which were trying to sever themselves from the Union.

General Sherman's plan was to cut the Confederacy in twain. While military operations were going on farther north, and on the coast, he resolved to strike at vital points. Possessed of great energy and military skill, his plans were formed with a far end in view, and he pushed forward, bravely determined to accomplish his purpose. Already the forces of the South were becoming weak, although not yet ready to give up the fight. Enthusiasm could not make up for lack of numbers. Men might be willing to starve, and even lay down their lives, but this was no surety that they could obtain the victory.

CHAPTER XXIX.

BATTLES ON LAND AND SEA.

WILMINGTON, North Carolina, was the only seaport town on the coast that the United States fleet had been unable to blockade with any degree of success. The entrance to the city is by Cape Fear river, whose outlet is such that the navy could not effectually close it against blockade-runners, which were daily passing in and out with supplies from abroad, and exports of cotton and other products.

The number of vessels that ran the blockade in fifteen months, from October 1, 1863, to December 31, 1864, was 397. English capitalists had invested in the trade more than sixty millions of dollars. Fifty cruisers stationed on the coast could not guard the entrance, although they made sixty-five captures of steamers, whose value was more than thirteen millions of dollars.

In the summer of 1864, it was determined to make an effort to capture the town. Its main defences were Fort Caswell, situated on the north end of Oak Island, on the south side of the river; and Fort Johnson, near Smithville, on the mainland; and Fort Fisher, on the southern point of the mainland, on the south side of the river, commanding both the channel of the river and that of New Inlet. It was a strong fort, and garrisoned by 2,300 men. The naval part of the expedition was assembled in Hampton Roads, and was ready to sail early in the fall. It consisted of the iron-clads "Ironsides," "Monadnock," "Canonicus," and "Mahopac;" the frigates "Minnesota," "Colorado," "Wabash;" and several gunboats and vessels of smaller size, and a fleet of transports.

The expedition got off on the 13th: the troops on board numbered 6,500. It was intended by General Grant that General Weitzel should command them. But General Butler, through whom, as the superior officer, the instructions to Weitzel were given, put the instructions in his pocket, and went himself. General Grant did not dream that Butler would take command, and thought that if he went, it would be merely to see the

explosion of a boat laden with powder, which he had prepared at great expense and delay, as if fancying that the mud walls of Fort Fisher would fall at the noise, as the walls of Jericho did at the sound of Joshua's trumpets.

The fleet arrived off New Inlet on the 15th, but a storm delayed the attack until the 24th. The powder boat was exploded the same morning, with so little effect that the Confederates did not know the object of it until they were informed by the Northern newspapers. At one o'clock the bombardment began, and in an hour and fifteen minutes the fort ceased to fire in return. The fire was kept up for five hours. The fleet suffered no injury, except by the explosion of its own guns, by which about forty men were killed, and others were wounded.

The Works too Strong to be Taken.

The next day the bombardment was renewed, and a landing of part of the force was made; but General Weitzel, after a survey of the work, reported that it would be "butchery to order an assault." This opinion coincided with that of General Butler, who ordered the troops to re-embark, and return to Fortress Monroe. Rear-Admiral Porter, who commanded the fleet, did not agree with General Butler, and so wrote to the Navy Department.

He remained off New Inlet two days, and then went to Beaufort, and waited in the confident expectation that General Grant would order a second attack. Accordingly, on the 30th of December, General Grant wrote to Admiral Porter to hold on, and he would send a force, and make another attempt to take the place. The same troops were ordered back, with the addition of a brigade of 1,500 men, and Gen. A. H. Terry was selected for the command.

The expedition sailed January 6th, and arrived at Beaufort on the 8th. Here it was detained by rough weather until the 12th. The next day the troops were all landed. The fleet opened fire upon the fort, and kept it up continuously for two days.

The assault was made at 3 P. M. January 15, by the army on the land face, and by a body of sailors and marines on the northeast bastion. The latter failed, but the army was more successful. By 5 o'clock nine traverses, being half the land front, were carried by hand-to-hand fighting. By 9 o'clock two more were carried, and an hour later the occupation of the fort was complete.

The garrison retreated to Federal Point, where, their retreat being cut off, they surrendered unconditionally, to the number of 2083; the rest were killed and wounded. The Union loss, of both army and fleet, was about 900. The fall of Fort Fisher was followed by that of Fort Caswell, and the forts at Smith's Island, Smithville, and Reeve's Point, and the city of Wilmington. The Confederate gunboats "Tallahassee" and "Chickamauga" were also destroyed.

The city of Mobile was defended by three forts at the entrance of Mobile Bay, forts Morgan and Gaines, on opposite sides of the channel, the latter on Dauphin Island, and the former at the end of a long sandy reach of the mainland. These forts kept the blockading fleet out of the bay. Admiral Farragut, who commanded the Gulf Squadron, reconnoitered the approaches to the bay early in the year, and offered, with the assistance of two or three iron-clads and a few thousand soldiers to gain full possession of the bay. In the latter part of July four monitors were added to his squadron, and General Granger was prepared to co-operate with the troops.

The Whole Fleet in Motion.

On the evening of August 4th the monitors and wooden vessels were all assembled off the bar of Mobile Bay, and the next morning, before six o'clock, the whole fleet moved up the bay. The wooden ships had each an iron-clad lashed to the side next to Fort Morgan, for the double purpose of protection, and that if either should be disabled her partner might tow her along. The four monitors also moved between the ships and the fort, at the distance of about two hundred yards from the latter.

Admiral Farragut, lashed to the topmast of his flagship, the Hartford, led the attack, and opened such a terrible and continuous fire upon the fort that the gunners were driven from their guns, and all the fleet passed the forts with very little damage, except to the monitor Tecumseh, which was struck by a torpedo, staving a hole in her side, when she filled and sank, carrying down her brave commander, T. A. M. Craven, and all her crew but four officers and seventeen men.

Soon after eight o'clock a desperate battle began with the Confederate fleet, consisting of the "Selma," "Morgan," and "Gaines," and the iron-clad ram "Tennessee," the most formidable ship ever constructed by the Confederates, and commanded by Admiral Buchanan, who had formerly commanded the Merrimac. After a contest of two hours with the whole

Federal fleet, the ram surrendered. Admiral Buchanan lost a leg, and twelve of his crew were killed and wounded. Two hundred and eighty prisoners were taken. Admiral Farragut lost fifty-two killed and one hundred and seventy wounded, besides those drowned in the "Tecumseh."

The forts were immediately invested. Gaines surrendered on the 7th, and Morgan on the 23d. Fort Powell was blown up and abandoned. The number of prisoners captured was 1464. Henceforth Mobile Bay was closed to external commerce.

Early in June the "Alabama," Captain Semmes, after a successful cruise in the Southern Atlantic and Indian oceans against American merchantmen, returned, and put into the harbor of Cherbourg. The United States steamer "Kearsarge," Captain John A. Winslow, lying then at Flushing, immediately sailed for Cherbourg, to watch the Alabama. Captain Semmes repaired and refitted his ship, and twenty minutes past 10 o'clock Sunday morning, June 19th, sailed out of the harbor to fight the "Kearsarge." He was accompanied by the French ironclad "Couronne," and an English yacht, the "Deer-hound," owned by a Mr. Lancaster.

The Famous Cruiser Goes Down.

The two vessels were nearly equal in size and armament, the "Alabama" being larger by 120 tons, and having eight guns to the "Kearsarge's" seven. The latter had the more powerful engines. The crew of the "Kearsarge" was twenty-two officers and one hundred and forty men. It is not known what number of men the "Alabama" had.

This naval combat was not between two American ships. The "Alabama" was a British ship, built in England, her armament and all her outfit English. Her crew were nearly all British sailors, her second lieutenant, Armstrong, being a relative of the inventor of the Armstrong gun. There was nothing American about her, except her name, and her captain, and a part of her officers. Before leaving Cherbourg, her guns were manned by trained and skilful artillerymen, who were transferred from the British practice-ship "Excellent."

After a short engagement the "Alabama" was sunk. The crew jumped into the sea. The "Kearsarge" picked up sixty-nine, of whom seventeen were wounded. Twelve were taken to France by two pilot-boats. The "Deer-hound" picked up forty-two, including Captain Semmes, and took them to England. How many were killed and wounded cannot be known.

The conduct of Captain Semmes, who, after striking his flag, threw his sword into the sea, and allowed himself to be carried off to England has been severely censured in the United States.

The constitution and laws required a new election of President in 1864.



SINKING OF THE "ALABAMA" BY THE "KEARSARGE."

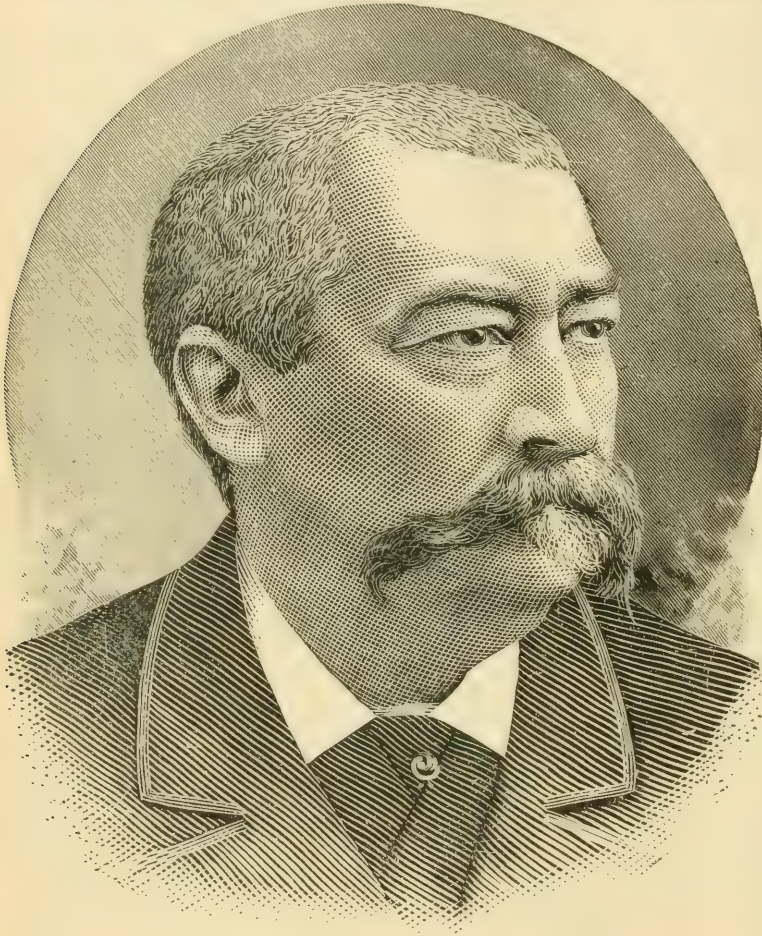
It could not be postponed. Could it be peaceably held in the midst of war? Could the canvass for the rival candidates be conducted without riot and bloodshed amid the clash of arms? The statesmen of the old world asked these questions. But the people of the United States, with no more than the ordinary agitation of the political elements, went through the canvass and elected a president and vice-president. The friends of Mr. Lincoln proposed him as a candidate for re-election, and for the second time he was chosen president.

The year 1864 was crowded with events, and we must go back a little

in the order of time. In June, General Lee ascertaining that, in consequence of Hunter's slow retreat through the mountains of West Virginia, Maryland was open to another invasion, and Washington exposed, ordered General Early with 12,000 men to descend the Shenandoah Valley and threaten

Washington. Early reached Martinsburg on July 3d, and four days later he occupied Frederick, Maryland.

The only force to oppose him was a small division of the Sixth Army Corps, and such scattered bands as Gen. Lewis Wallace could collect together at Baltimore. He met Early at a crossing of the Monocacy on the 8th, and although beaten, he gained considerable time for the 19th Army Corps, under General Wright, and the remainder of the Sixth Corps, to arrive. He advanced on Washington, but was repulsed by General Wright and



GENERAL PHILIP H. SHERIDAN.

compelled to retreat back to the Shenandoah Valley again.

When General Grant, however, ordered the return of the Nineteenth and Sixth Corps to Petersburg, Early was again re-enforced, and entering Maryland, a flying column sacked and burnt the city of Chambersburg, Pennsylvania.

General Lee, by sending a large force into the Shenandoah Valley, expected to induce Grant to detach from his army so large a body of men as to weaken his hold upon the investing lines of Petersburg and Richmond.

But the hero of Vicksburg would not relax a grasp once made. He determined rather to destroy the Confederate force in the Shenandoah Valley. He formed a new military department, and gave the command to General P. H. Sheridan. General Early was encamped near Winchester, on the west bank of Opequan creek, and General Sheridan on the east side, near Berryville. General Sheridan took command August 7, and the next six weeks were spent in organizing his army.

General Grant paid him a visit August 15, and after consultation ordered him to attack Early. This he did on the 19th, inflicting a severe defeat. Early rallied his broken forces and made a stand at Fisher's Hill, where he was again attacked and defeated. He then retired beyond the passes of the Blue Ridge. Sheridan pushed his pursuit as far as Staunton, and then retiring, laid waste the valley by the destruction of all barns, grain, forage, farming implements and mills. Early being again re-enforced took the offensive. The Union forces were posted at Cedar Creek. General Sheridan had gone to Washington, leaving the command to General Wright. By a night march Early surprised the Union camp, before daylight of October 19. A complete rout ensued, and the whole Union army retired in confusion and disorder as far as Middletown, where General Wright succeeded in arresting the flight and reforming his lines.

Sheridan Suddenly Appears upon the Field.

It was now ten o'clock A.M. At this moment General Sheridan dashed upon the field, and immediately ordered a counter-attack, which drove Early in confusion beyond Cedar Creek, the Union forces recovering their camps, recapturing all they had lost, and taking many prisoners. Early then abandoned the valley, and joined Lee at Richmond. With this campaign ended all military operations in the Shenandoah Valley. The Sixth Corps and two divisions of cavalry were returned to Grant at Petersburg.

Sherman, with the consent of General Grant, undertook to march from Atlanta to the sea. Having collected his forces, he began by destroying the railroad from Atlanta to Dalton. Atlanta the prize so fiercely fought for, and won at such a sacrifice of life and treasure, was burnt and abandoned. He divided his army into two divisions, the right under General Howard, and the left under General Slocum. He took with him only small provision and ammunition trains, intending to forage and subsist upon the country.

Two lines of railroad connect Atlanta with the seaboard, one by Augusta through South Carolina to Charleston, 308 miles; the other through Macon and Millen to Savannah, 293 miles. Between these two roads, from forty to one hundred miles apart, General Sherman marched,



SHERIDAN'S CAVALRY CHARGE AT CEDAR CREEK.

his wings overlapping them. Two hundred miles of railroad were destroyed, the rails were heated and twisted, every tie, bridge, tank, wood-shed, and depot was burnt, and every culvert was blown up.

All the cotton discovered was burned, about fifteen thousand bales. All the cattle, horses, mules, hogs, and poultry were taken, and either

consumed on the way, or brought to Savannah. Eight or ten thousand slaves followed the army. It was forbidden to burn and pillage houses, but this was done to some extent by stragglers. A tornado's path burnt by fire could not have been more destructive. The Carolinas and Virginia were severed from Alabama and Mississippi, and Hood and Lee could not again support each other.

On the 11th of December, a dispatch from General Howard was received by General Foster, in command on the coast. On the 12th, Fort McAllister, which had resisted three assaults of the monitors in 1863, was taken by assault by General Hazen. Preparations were made to besiege Savannah, but General Hardee withdrew from it during the night of the 20th, and it was occupied by Sherman the next day. His own losses on the march had been less than fifteen hundred men.

Many Towns Captured.

Anticipating General Sherman's arrival at Savannah, General Grant, December 6th, had issued orders to have his army put upon transports, and brought to the aid of General Meade. But, after learning the defeat of Hood by Thomas, the order was countermanded, and he was directed to resume his march from Savannah, through the Carolinas, to Goldsboro, N. C. He was ready, and began his movement January 15th. The spring rains had caused such an overflow of the rivers, that all the low grounds and swamps were submerged, and no real progress was made until the middle of February.

He captured Columbia, S. C., February 17th, and March 12th he reached Fayetteville, N. C., when he opened communication with General Schofield, by way of Cape Fear river. On the 15th he resumed his march, and on the same day encountered and defeated a part of Johnston's forces at Averysboro. On the 18th, General Slocum, who led the advance, was attacked at Bentonville by Johnston's army, and driven back three miles, with the loss of three guns. General Slocum, learning that Johnston's whole army was in front, intrenched himself, and awaited re-enforcements.

But, before their arrival, and on the night of the 21st, Johnston retreated to Smithfield, leaving his dead and wounded on the field. General Sherman had up to this time skilfully interposed his superior forces between the inferior forces of Johnston on the hills, and Hardee on the coast, and prevented their junction until he could unite with Schofield and


Terry, the former from Newbern, and the latter from Wilmington. This junction was effected on the 22d at Goldsboro, where the army lay during the month of March.

The results of this campaign were the evacuation of Charleston on the 18th of February, and its occupation by General Gilmore on the 21st. As he marched northward, the whole coast, with all its forts, docks, and property, from Savannah to Newbern, fell into possession of the Federal troops and fleets.

Sheridan lay in winter-quarters at Winchester until February 27th, when, with 10,000 cavalry, he set out for an overland journey to join Grant or Sherman, his instructions directing him to cross the James river, strike the Southside railroad at Farmville, destroy it, and seek Sherman at Raleigh. But after scattering Early's small infantry force at Staunton, and destroying the railroad from Charlottesville to Lynchburg, and the James River Canal from New Market to Duiguidsville, he learned that the bridges across the James had been burned by the Confederates. He, therefore, took another route, marched through Virginia to the White House, and thence across the peninsula to Jones' Landing, and joined the army before Petersburg.

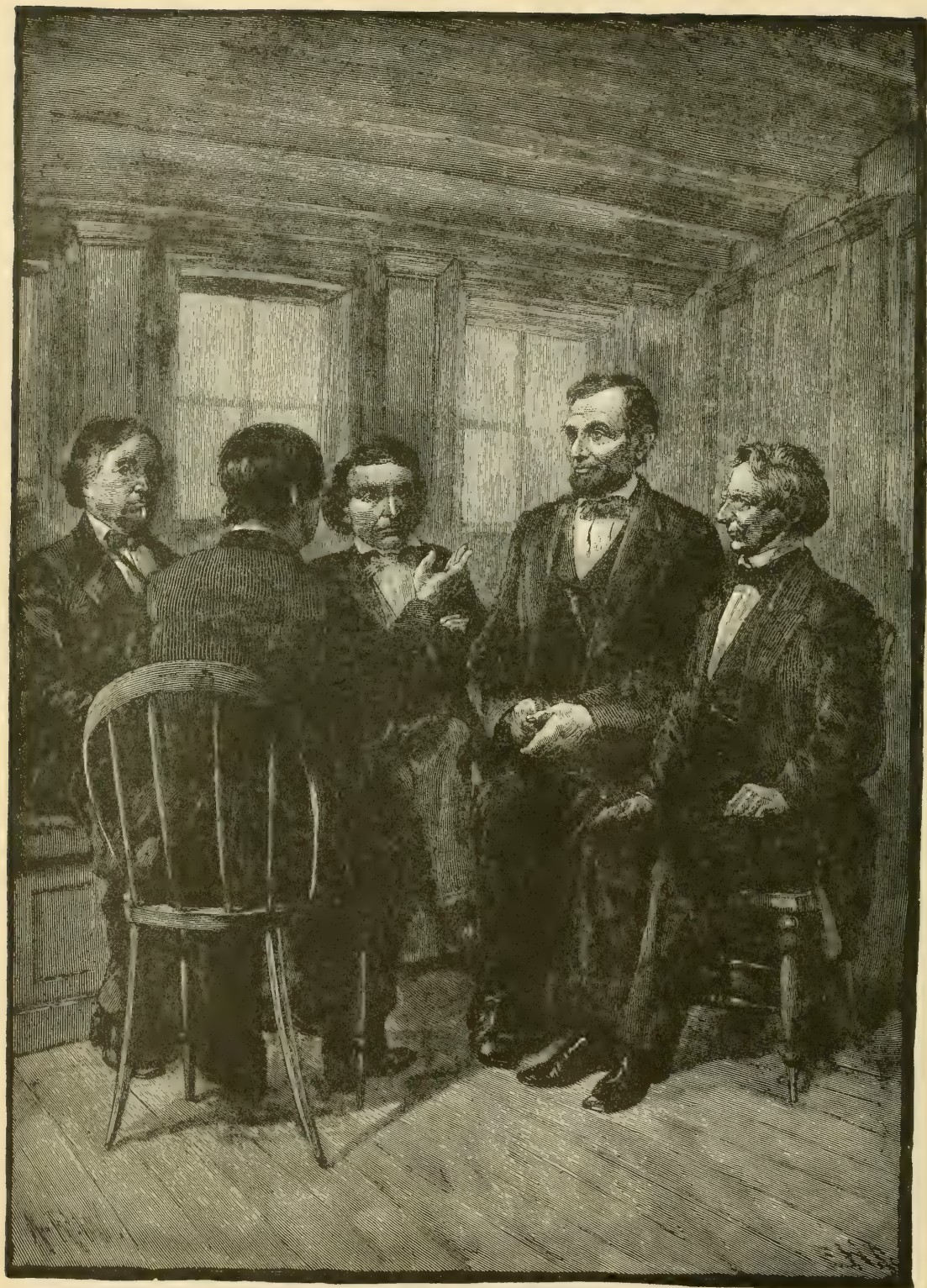
CHAPTER XXX.

SURRENDER OF THE CONFEDERATE ARMY.

 HE circle of destruction was now drawing closer and closer around the citadel of the Confederacy. Sherman was coming up from the South, and Stoneman was ready to co-operate with him, having crossed the mountains of Tennessee into North Carolina, destroying railroads, bridges, depots of supplies, and capturing Salisbury.

The leaders of the Confederacy were now anxious to bring the war to a close. Three commissioners, among whom were Alexander H. Stephens, Vice-President of the Confederacy, and Senator Hunter, were charged with power to arrange with Union agents the terms on which peace could be concluded. The preliminary discussions resulted in nothing, and finally President Lincoln and Secretary Seward went to Fortress Monroe to continue the negotiations. As before, the conference brought no results, Mr. Lincoln insisting that the only terms of peace were for those who had originated the war to lay down their arms.

Lee saw the painful necessity of abandoning Richmond and uniting with the Southern army under Johnston. He could, at the head of the combined forces, maintain the contest for some time, and negotiate for favorable terms of peace. His best line of retreat was along the south bank of the Appomattox to Burkesville, and thence to Danville. Before he could set out it was necessary to weaken Grant's line on the left, near Hatcher's Run. This could be done most effectually by an assault upon some point near and east of Petersburg. In pursuit of this plan, on the morning of March 25, Fort Steadman was surprised by a night attack and taken, but could not be held. A counter-assault not only drove the Confederates out of the fort, but gained for the Union troops the strongly intrenched picket-line, within a few steps from the Confederate works. The attack upon Fort Steadman cost Lee 2500 men killed and wounded, and 1900 men taken prisoners. The Union loss was less than 2000.



THE PEACE COMMISSIONERS.

General Grant, prior to this affair, had issued orders for a general movement of the whole army. He had been apprehensive for weeks, every night when he retired to rest, that before he should awake next morning Lee would be gone. General Ord, at the head of four divisions of the Army of the James, moved out to Hatcher's Run. Other divisions, under Warren, Humphreys, Wright and Parke, followed the next day; while Sheridan, with his cavalry, held the extreme left of the line at Dinwiddie Court-house. A heavy rain for two days delayed the attack. Lee had divined the object of his antagonist, and marshalled all his available forces to resist the shock upon his right. The contest opened with a fierce attack by Lee upon Warren, which was resisted with great bravery.

The Main Works Assaulted and Carried.

The battle raged furiously all the morning, but Warren held his ground, and finally drove Lee back to his lines on the White Oak road. Foiled here, Lee turned his attention to Sheridan, who, by a bold push, had gained Five Forks, about eight miles north of Dinwiddie. Two divisions of infantry, under Pickett and Bushrod Johnson, forced Sheridan's cavalry back towards Dinwiddie. He dismounted his men, and deployed them as infantry, and so maintained his ground till night. McKenzie's cavalry and the whole Fifth Corps were, during the night, ordered to join Sheridan. In the morning he took the offensive, hurled the Confederates back to Five Forks, assaulted and carried the main works, and captured about five thousand prisoners.

There were now left only two strong works in the hands of the Confederates. These were Forts Alexander and Gregg. Fort Alexander was close to the Federal line, and it was overrun and captured with a hurrah. This left only Fort Gregg, and for a time the fate of the Confederate Army of Northern Virginia depended on that; for, if it could not be held until Lee had time to take a new position, his army was doomed. Its garrison numbered two hundred and fifty.

General Ord immediately sent Gibbons' division to storm Fort Gregg. It charged in fine order, but within fifty yards received such a murderous volley that it fell back. This repulse was so admirably made that the thousands of Confederates who were watching broke into ringing cheers. A second charge was made, and then a third; but the fourth prevailed. The Union troops swept over and into the works, and found that, out of

the two hundred and fifty comprising the garrison, only thirty were unhurt. All the rest were killed or wounded, This decided the day. But Gen. Grant, fearing that Lee would abandon his lines



GALLANT DEFENSE OF FORT GREGG.

and fall upon Sheridan with all his force, ordered a general bombardment of Petersburg, which was continued until four o'clock in the morning, when an assault was made on the outer works. It was successful at all points. General Wright, with the Sixth Corps,

pierced completely through, and reached the Appomattox river, thus separating Lee's right wing from his centre and left. The broken columns were pursued by General Miles to Sutherland Station, and made prisoners or dispersed. The Union troops now closed around Petersburg. Lee still tenaciously held his inner works, and even made two desperate attempts to retake some of the lost ground, in one of which—the last blow struck by the Army of Northern Virginia—fell General A. P. Hill, who had borne a distinguished part in all its campaigns.

Richmond was no longer tenable, and there was but one line of retreat for Lee—by the Appomattox westward to Burkesville and the Danville line. The Fifth Corps of the Union Army was encamped at Sutherland Station, on the Southside railroad, two miles west of Petersburg; and Sheridan's cavalry had bivouacked at Ford's, ten miles further west.

Lee Telegraphs to Jefferson Davis.

At ten o'clock in the forenoon of Sunday Lee telegraphed to Jefferson Davis that he must evacuate Richmond. The message found him in church, from which his sudden withdrawal made known the fatal tidings to the people. During the day President Davis and all the State officers, with the papers and coin belonging to the Confederate government, departed on a train for Danville. During the night the troops were quietly withdrawn from Petersburg and Richmond and all the fortified lines, and before morning were sixteen miles on their way westward.

When the rear-guard crossed the James to leave Richmond General Ewell gave the foolish order to set fire to the warehouses containing the government tobacco, and soon all the business portion of the city was wrapped in flames. By the light of the blazing buildings, and the sound of exploding shells, General Weitzel was informed of the event, and in the gray dawn of Monday morning forty troopers entered Richmond and planted their colors on the capitol.

But General Grant did not enter the deserted city. Knowing that the strength of the Confederate government was concentrated in Lee's army he bent all his energies to the pursuit. To cut off Lee, by striking the Richmond and Danville railroad before he could reach Burkesville, was his first object. For this purpose Sheridan pushed on with all speed, followed by the Fifth and Sixth Corps, along the South side railroad.

Before Lee left Richmond he had sent orders to Danville to tranship

stores and rations for his army to Amelia Courthouse. When he arrived at that place, April 4th, he learned that the train had passed on to Richmond, leaving his army without provisions. He also learned, before he was ready to move, that General Sheridan had already reached Jetersville, seven miles west. He then turned towards Lynchburg. But General Ord, who had occupied Burkesville on the 6th, sent forward a small force under General Read to Farmville, where this gallant officer met and attacked the head of Lee's column, and by the sacrifice of his own life and the loss of most of his heroic band, detained Lee until General Ord came up with his whole army. General Sheridan and the Sixth and Second Corps were crowding upon Lee's rear, and the same day Ewell's Corps and nearly the whole wagon-train of the army were captured near Deatonville.

The Confederates in Full Retreat.

The next day, the 7th, Lee crossed the Appomattox near Farmville, and ordered the bridges to be burned behind him. So vigorous, however, was the pursuit that General Humphreys was in time to save the wagon-bridge, and all but four spans of the railroad-bridge. The Union troops crossed immediately. But during the night Lee marched towards Appomattox Courthouse, hoping to reach Appomattox Station on the Lynchburg railroad. It was his only hope of escape.

In the meantime General Grant had, on the 7th, demanded, in a letter to General Lee, the surrender of his army. Lee courteously asked what terms would be granted. Grant replied that the only conditions would be that the men and officers should be disqualified from ever again taking up arms against the United States. Lee declined to surrender, but proposed to meet Grant to confer upon the restoration of peace. To this suggestion Grant replied that he had no authority to treat on the subject of peace. Grant's last letter was dated the 9th, and before it reached Lee the time for parley had gone by.

Sheridan, by a rapid march of thirty miles on the 8th, had reached Appomattox Station in the evening, just as Lee's vanguard arrived. Four trains of cars from Lynchburg, with supplies for Lee's army, were approaching. Sheridan threw a force in rear of the trains, captured them, and then attacking the vanguard, drove it back to Appomattox Courthouse. Lee could now escape only by breaking through Sheridan's lines. This he attempted in the morning. He ordered his remnant of an army—eight

or ten thousand men—in battle array, to cut their way through at all hazards. The attack was begun with zeal and impetuosity, and the Federal cavalry gave way; but, just at this moment, General Sheridan, who had been to Appomattox Station to hurry up the Army of the James, came upon the field.

He directed his troopers to fall back gradually, resisting slightly, to give time for the infantry to come up and form into line. No sooner did the Confederates see the line of advancing bayonets than they began to give ground. Sheridan then gave the order to mount, and placing his cavalry on the left flank, was about to charge on the trains and the unarmed and confused mass, when a white flag emerged from the Confederate lines, bearing a letter from Lee to Grant, requesting a suspension of hostilities and an interview. Evidently, a matter of importance was on hand.

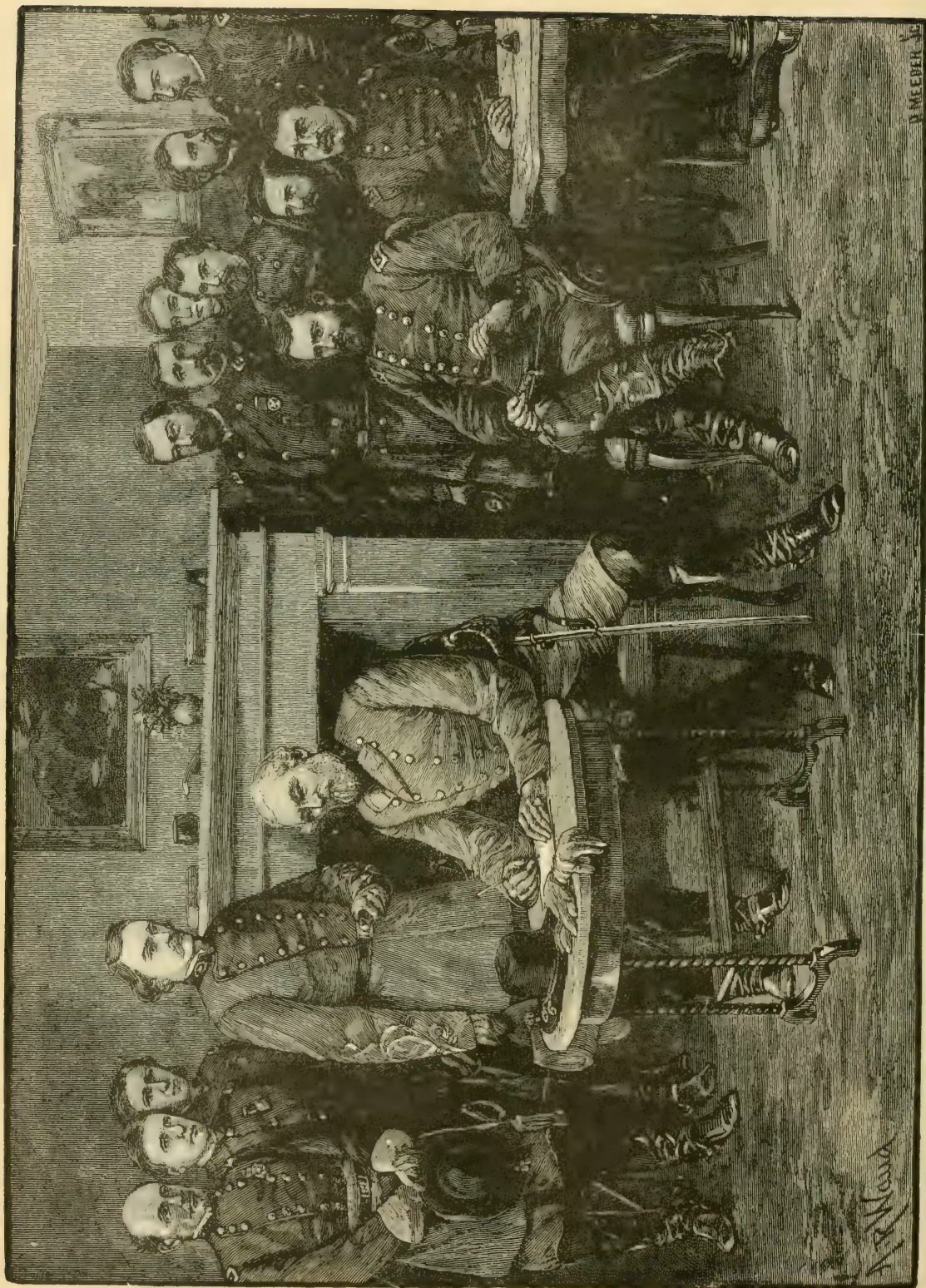
Liberal Terms of Surrender.

In an old farm-house the two generals met, and on a plain deal table drew up the form of agreement by which the Army of Northern Virginia ceased to exist.

The terms of surrender were liberal. Nothing was exacted to humiliate the discomfited foe. Three days afterwards the Confederates marched to a designated place, near Appomattox Court-house, stacked their arms, and laid down their accoutrements. The number of armed men was 8000, and the unarmed about 20,000. Paroles were then accepted, and the men then dispersed to their several homes. The Union troops slowly retraced their steps to Richmond.

Having put his army in camp at Goldsboro, General Sherman made a flying visit to City Point, where he had an interview with General Grant, who disclosed his plans, and directed Sherman to return to Goldsboro, and move against Raleigh as soon as April 10th. The stirring news of Grant's success reached him while still at Goldsboro. He immediately set his columns in motion, occupied Raleigh April 13th, and the next day entered into correspondence with General Johnston, which resulted in a suspension of hostilities, and a memorandum, or basis for peace, subject to the approval of the President.

The agreement did not arrive at Washington until President Lincoln was succeeded by Mr. Johnson, who disapproved it, and dispatched General Grant with instruction to General Sherman to terminate the truce, and



SURRENDER OF GENERAL LEE TO GENERAL GRANT.

commence operations against Johnston. The Confederate general made no further resistance; but agreed to surrender on the same terms accorded to General Lee. The Confederate troops grounded their arms, accepted paroles, and dispersed to their homes, while Sherman's soldiers continued their march through Richmond to Washington, where, after a grand review, they were honorably dismissed to their several states.

The Confederates, after the capture of the forts at the mouth of Mobile Bay, still held the city of Mobile. On the 20th of March General Canby moved against the city. The troops collected at the forts sailed up the bay. A force under Major-General Steele marched from Pensacola. Spanish Fort was occupied by the combined forces on the 8th of April, and Fort Blakely carried by assault on the 9th. Two days later the city was evacuated, and on the 12th General Canby took possession.

Closing Scenes of the War.

The last wasteful raid of the war was that of General Wilson, who, with 12,500 mounted men, marched from Chickasaw, Alabama, to Macon, Georgia. On the 1st of April he encountered General Forrest at Ebenezer Church, and defeated him. On the 2d he took by assault the fortified city of Selma, destroyed the armory, arsenal, naval foundry, machine shops, vast quantities of stores, and captured 3000 prisoners. On the 4th he destroyed Tallahassee. On the 14th he reached Montgomery. On the 16th he captured Columbus and West Point, destroying and taking an immense amount of property. On the 20th he took possession of Macon, Georgia, with sixty field guns, 1200 militia, and five generals, surrendered by General Howell Cobb. On the 4th of May General Dick Taylor surrendered to General Canby all the remaining Confederate forces east of the Mississippi.

An army sufficient to overcome General Kirby Smith in Texas was organized, and immediately put in motion for Texas, with General Sheridan placed in command. General Smith, not waiting for an attack, surrendered all the Confederate troops in Texas to General Canby on the 26th of May; but exhibited the bad faith of first disbanding most of his army, and permitting an indiscriminate plunder of public property. This was the closing act of the war.

When the Confederate president left Richmond, April 2d, he went to Danville, Virginia, and there, on the 5th, issued a proclamation, in which there is a mingled tone of confidence and defiance, based upon his expecta-

tion that General Lee would escape from Grant, and unite his army with that of General Johnston. But the surrender of both those generals dashed his hopes to the ground. With a small body of cavalry as an escort, he attempted to thread his way through the Federal lines, reach the coast of Florida, and escape on some vessel. He got as far as Irwinsville, Georgia, when he was overtaken by a squadron of the Fourth Michigan cavalry, and captured, May 11th, with his family. He was removed to Fortress Monroe, where he was finally paroled, as were the Confederate troops. The United States government magnanimously declined to condemn and execute any of the officers or men who had been engaged in the attempt to set up an independent government.

The terms of the surrender were arranged on the 9th of April. On the 12th the Army of Northern Virginia formed in divisions for the last time, and marching to a designated spot near Appomattox Court-house, laid down its arms, and disbanded. About seventy-five hundred men with arms, and about eighteen thousand unarmed stragglers, took part in the surrender. The Federal troops treated their vanquished opponents with true soldierly kindness, and carefully refrained from everything which might seem to insult the valor that had won their earnest admiration.

CHAPTER XXXI.

ASSASSINATION OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN.

ON the 4th of March, 1865, Mr. Lincoln was sworn into office for a second term, before Chief-Justice Chase. His inaugural address was pervaded by a deep religious feeling. He took a hopeful view of the future, but ventured upon no promises or predictions. The fate of the nation is in the hands of God, who governs the world according to His own purposes. The address concludes as follows: "With malice towards none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right, as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in; to bind up the nation's wounds; to care for him who shall have borne the battle, and for his widow and his orphan; to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace among ourselves, and with all nations."

On the 8th of March, he rescinded an order which required passports from all persons entering the United States from Canada. This order had been issued December 17, 1864, in consequence of the gathering of many Confederates in Canada, their threatened raids into the country, and the facility with which spies and hostile persons could cross the frontier, travel from place to place, avoid detection, and escape apprehension.

In the progress of the war, large numbers of soldiers had deserted, and subjected themselves to court-martial, and the penalty of death. Mr. Lincoln, in compliance with an act of Congress, also issued a proclamation giving them sixty days in which to return, otherwise they would be considered as having forfeited their rights of citizenship, and be forever incapable of exercising any rights of citizenship.

He knew that General Grant was intending to move against Richmond, and went to City Point to be present at what both thought would be the final and successful struggle. He went into Richmond the day after its occupation by the Union troops. He there had an interview with Judge Campbell, who urged him to permit the assembling of the Virginia Legislature. On the 6th day of April, he wrote to General Weitzel, directing

him to permit them to meet, and sit until they might attempt some act hostile to the United States. He subsequently recalled his permission.

The President returned to Washington, and on the evening of the 11th of April, the Presidential mansion and all the other public buildings in Washington were illuminated, in honor of the surrender of General Lee and his army. To the people, who assembled to congratulate him, he made the last address that fell from his lips, in which he briefly discussed the subject of the restoration of the States to the Union. He dwelt principally upon the State government in Louisiana in 1863, and defended his conduct. But he said that he was not inseparately wedded to any plan. He added: "So great peculiarities pertain to each State, and such important and sudden changes occur in the same State; and, withal, so new and unprecedented is the whole case, that an exclusive and inflexible plan would surely become a new entanglement."

United States Authority Re-established.

He did not think it wise to discuss the question whether the seceded States, so called, were in or out of the Union. He thought it a pernicious abstraction. He said: "We all agree that the seceded States, so called, are out of their political relation with the Union, and that the sole object of the government, civil and military, in regard to those States, is again to get them into that proper practical relation. I believe that it is not only possible, but in fact easier, to do this without deciding, or even considering, whether these States have ever been out of the Union, than with it. Finding themselves safely at home, it would be utterly immaterial whether they had ever been abroad."

Believing the war to be substantially ended, proclamation was made closing all the Southern ports, and claiming to exercise over them the same authority as over other ports of the United States, and declaring that ships of war belonging to foreign nations would receive in ports of the United States the same treatment which was given in their ports to cruisers of the United States. Orders were issued to stop recruiting for the army and navy, to make no more contracts for supplies, and no more purchases of war material.

Mr. Lincoln naturally felt the elation which follows success. It was apparent in his gait, in his face, in his talk. The events of the last month lifted a burden from his mind, and inspired him with new life.

The cares and perplexities, the labors and responsibilities of office had borne heavily upon him. That his election had been made the occasion of secession and rebellion; that his whole term of four years had been one of civil war; that thousands of his fellow-citizens had fallen in the fratricidal contest, had sorely afflicted his generous and placable spirit. His tall form, that had bent slightly before the storm, was now again erect. The sadness that had settled upon his countenance was dispersed by the sunrise of peace.

If he had pushed the war resolutely and sternly, if he had refused to listen to any proposition that looked to a broken Union and disrupted territory, it was from a conviction of duty and with a determination to transmit to his successor the constitution unimpaired and the country undiminished. His triumph was certain and his ambition satisfied. The war had not embittered his feelings. He loved his friends, and did not hate his enemies. He did not speak of crime and punishment; his thoughts dwelt upon reconciliation and forgiveness. It was his intention to temper justice with mercy, and to spend his second term in healing the wounds that had been given and received during the first.

The Victim of a Foul Conspiracy.

His life had been threatened in anonymous letters. He had been often warned to beware of assassination; but he could never be persuaded to harbor the suspicions, nor take the precautions of a tyrant. His house was unguarded, his person was unattended, and he went from place to place, to public offices and private houses, to the church, to the theatre, like any citizen. He showed neither fear nor distrust. He was accessible and affable to all.

And yet this good man, whose heart at the time was going out in mercy and kindness to his enemies, was the victim of a foul conspiracy. The conspirators only waited for the place and occasion. Mr. Lincoln, oppressed with the cares of state, had occasionally sought relief in recreation in the theatre. He had been invited, and consented to attend Ford's theatre on the evening of the 14th of April.

While he was seated in a private box, with his family and friends around him, absorbed in the mimic representation of the stage, the assassin stealthily entered the box, fastened the door with a board previously prepared for the purpose, so that he could not be followed, and with a Der-

ringer pistol shot his unconscious victim behind the ear, the ball penetrating the brain. Mr. Lincoln's head fell back upon the chair, and his body remained motionless. He was removed to a house near by and attended by surgeons. The wound was mortal. He did not speak after it, but sank gradually until twenty-two minutes after seven o'clock in the morning, when he expired.

The body was embalmed and lay in state in the Green Room of the Presidential mansion, inclosed in a splendid coffin, and within a grand catafalque, until the 19th of April. The funeral was observed on that day, and it was set apart throughout the country as a day of mourning. The body was removed to the Rotunda of the Capitol, and for two days lay in state, and was visited by more than twenty-five thousand people. The next day it was placed on the car prepared for it, and borne to Springfield, Ill., by the same route over which Mr. Lincoln came on his way to Washington to enter upon his office.

Demonstrations of Profound Sorrow.

Everywhere on the route the funeral cortege was received with demonstrations of respect and grief. The engines and cars on all the railroads were hung with crape; churches were draped in mourning; the buildings on all the principal streets in every village and city were festooned in black; nearly all citizens of both sexes wore some funeral emblem. Everywhere the national flag waved at half-mast. Wherever the cortege stopped thousands thronged to obtain a last look at the face of the dead. The nation was profoundly grieved. No man, whether monarch, statesman, martyr or public benefactor, was every more widely or sincerely mourned, and by none was his sudden death more deeply lamented and regretted than by those who had stood towards him for four years in the attitude of enemies.

The funeral train arrived in Springfield, Ill., on the 3d of May. The corpse was carried to the State House and placed in the Hall of Representatives. The people came into the city from every direction, and more than seventy-five thousand persons passed into the hall, gazed a moment at the familiar features, and went weeping away. The next morning the coffin was finally closed at ten o'clock and the body, followed by the procession, under the charge of Major-General Hooker, was carried to Oak Ridge Cemetery and deposited in the tomb.

The assassination of President Lincoln called forth letters of grief and condolence from all foreign countries. Queen Victoria wrote a letter of sympathy to Mrs. Lincoln. The ruler of every nation of Europe expressed his horror at the deed. China, Japan and Siam sent words of condolence. Nor was the grief of Europe expressed alone in the courtly customary

verbiage of diplomacy. The people were afflicted and intensely stirred. They regarded Mr. Lincoln as the representative of their class, and had broadly studied his character and watched his career. His success had always claimed their admiration, and his wisdom and goodness had won their love. His life would be an ever-living denial of the



THE GRAVE OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN.

rights of legitimacy, and the divinity of kings, the claim of many centuries.

Even in the South, which had made the election of Abraham Lincoln the occasion of the dissolution of the Union, the unaffected and manly virtues of this simply great man had conquered the people, who had come to regard him as their best and truest friend.

His death was sincerely lamented there, and in the lamentation of the South, Abraham Lincoln had his proudest triumph. His death was a crushing misfortune to the whole country. He was the only man capable of carrying out a policy of generous conciliation towards the South, and

he had resolved upon such a course. He was sincerely desirous to heal the wounds of the war as soon as possible, and was strong enough to put down all opposition to his policy. His untimely death, as well as the manner of it, threw back the settlement of our national troubles fully five years.

As he leaped from the president's box to the stage the assassin's foot caught in an American flag with which the box was draped, and he fell heavily, breaking his leg. He managed to escape, however. It was immediately ascertained that the assassin was John Wilkes Booth, a younger son of the famous actor, Junius Brutus Booth. Almost at the same time that the President was shot another assassin, one Payne, alias Powell, entered the residence of Secretary Seward. Proceeding to the chamber where the Secretary was confined to a sick bed, he attacked the two attendants of the invalid and his son, Frederick W. Seward, and injured them severely, and then attempted to cut Mr. Seward's throat. He succeeded in gashing the face of his intended victim, but fled before further harm could be done.

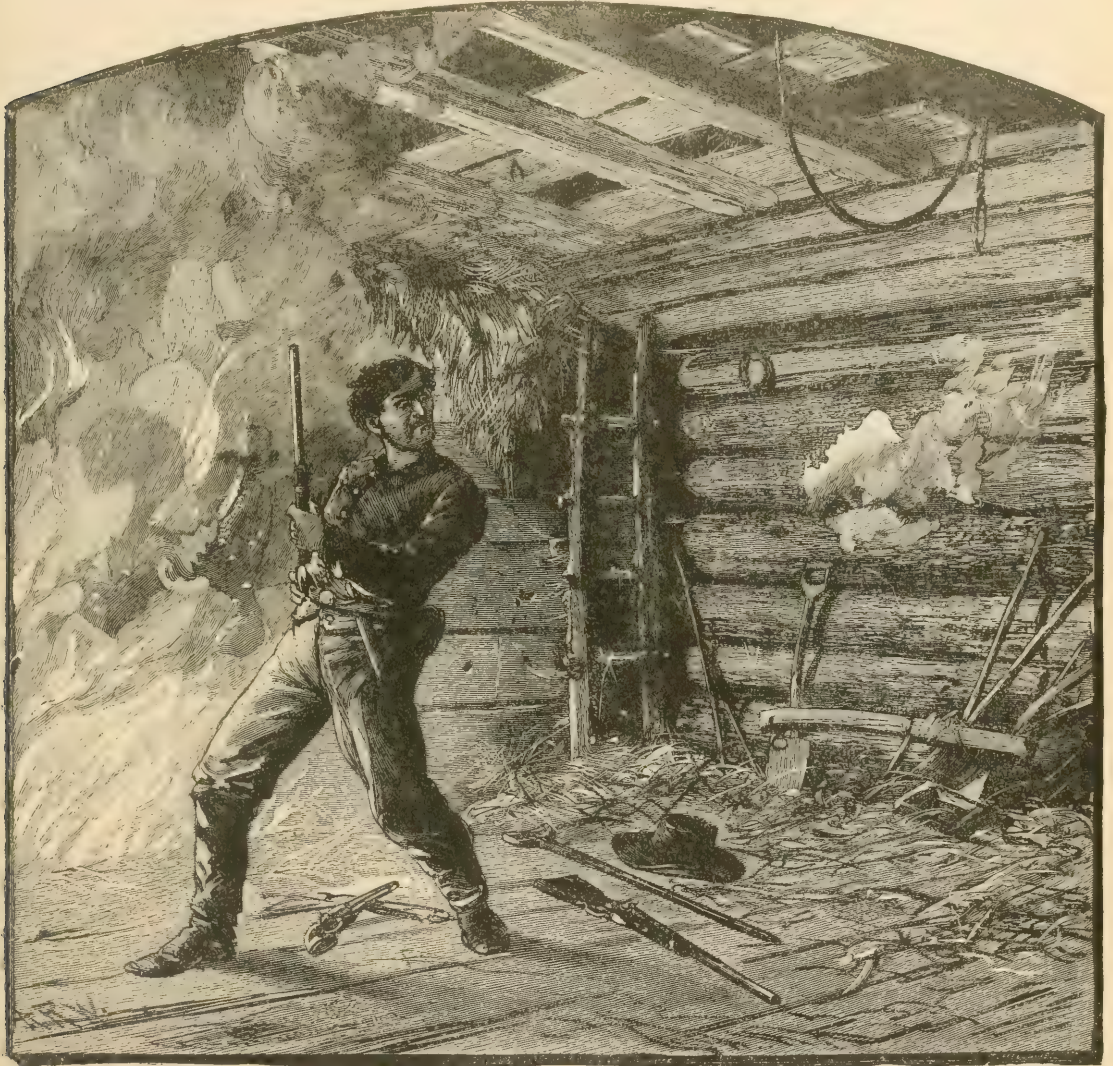
Why the Plot Failed.

Booth, who most probably was insane, had drawn quite a number of persons into a conspiracy, which had for its object the murder of the President and Vice-President, Secretaries Seward and Stanton, and Chief Justice Chase. The plot failed through unexpected movements of some of the intended victims and the cowardice of some of the conspirators. Booth and a young man named Harold fled into lower Maryland, from which they crossed the Potomac into Virginia. They were pursued by the government detectives and a squadron of cavalry, and were tracked to a barn in Caroline County, Virginia, between Bowling Green and Port Royal.

Here they were surrounded on the 26th of April. Harold surrendered himself, but Booth, refusing to yield, was shot by Sergeant Boston Corbett, and died a few hours later, after suffering intensely. His accomplices were arrested, and were brought to trial before a military commission at Washington. Payne or Powell, Atzerot, Harold, and Mrs. Surratt were condemned to death, and were hanged on the 7th of July, 1865, for complicity in the plot. Dr. Mudd, O'Laughlin, and Arnold were imprisoned in the Dry Tortugas for life, and Spangler for six years.

What Booth expected to accomplish by his horrible deed yet remains a mystery. It is now generally believed that he was insane; rendered so

perhaps by his dissipated habits—and in this state of mind had conceived the idea that Mr. Lincoln was a tyrant, and as such ought to be put to death. He had no accomplices in the South, and his bloody deed was regarded with horror by the southern people.



CAPTURE OF BOOTH, THE ASSASSIN OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN.

We must now return to Sherman's army, which we left resting at Goldsboro. Johnston's army was in the vicinity of Raleigh, and after the fall of Richmond was joined by Mr. Davis and the various officers of the Confederate government. On the 10th of April Sherman advanced from

Goldsboro towards Johnson's position, and steadily pressed the Confederate army back. On the 13th Sherman entered Raleigh. Being convinced that further resistance was hopeless, and having learned of the surrender of General Lee's army, General Johnston now opened negotiations with General Sherman for the surrender of his army to the Federal commander.

The result of these negotiations was an agreement signed by the two commanders on the 18th of April. As this agreement provided for the restoration of the States of the Confederacy to their lost places in the Union, it was disapproved by the Federal government, and Sherman was ordered to resume hostilities. General Johnston was at once notified by General Sherman of this order, and on the 26th of April entered into an agreement with him by which he surrendered to General Sherman all the Confederate forces under his command on terms similar to those granted to General Lee by General Grant.

The Last to Surrender.

The example of Generals Lee and Johnston was followed by the other Confederate commanders throughout the South. The last to surrender was General E. Kirby Smith, in Texas, on the 26th of May. On the 29th of May President Johnson issued a proclamation announcing the close of the war, and offering amnesty to all who had participated in it on the Confederate side, with the exception of fourteen specified classes.

Upon the surrender of Johnston's army Mr. Davis and the members of his former cabinet endeavored to make their way to the coast of Florida, from which they hoped to be able to reach the West Indies. Some of them succeeded in doing so; but Mr. Davis was captured at Irwinsville, Georgia, on the 10th of May, and was sent as a prisoner to Fortress Monroe, where he was held in confinement until May, 1867.

The civil war was over. It had cost the country one million men in the killed and crippled for life of the two armies. In money the North and South had expended probably \$5,000,000,000. The exact amount will never be known, as the Confederate debt perished with that government.

Upon the death of Mr. Lincoln, Andrew Johnson, the Vice-President, by the terms of the Constitution, became President of the United States. He took the oath of office on the 15th of April, and at once entered upon the discharge of his duties. His first act was to retain all the members of the cabinet appointed by Mr. Lincoln.

Mr. Johnson was a native of North Carolina, having been born in Raleigh on the 29th of December, 1808. At the age of ten he was bound as an apprentice to a tailor of that city. He was at this time unable to read or write. Some years later, being determined to acquire an education, he learned the alphabet from a fellow-workman, and a friend taught him spelling. He was soon able to read, and pursued his studies steadily, working ten or twelve hours a day at his trade, and studying two or three more. In 1826 he removed to Greenville, Tennessee, carrying with him his mother, who was dependent upon him for support.

Upon attaining manhood he married, and continued his studies under the direction of his wife, supporting his family in the meantime by his trade. He was subsequently chosen alderman of his town, and, with this election, entered upon his political career. Studying law he abandoned tailoring, and devoted himself to legal pursuits and politics. He was successively chosen mayor, member of the legislature, presidential elector, and State senator. He was twice elected governor of Tennessee, and three times a senator of the United States from that State.



ANDREW JOHNSON.

Upon the secession of Tennessee from the Union he refused to relinquish his seat in the Senate, and remained faithful to the cause of the Union throughout the war, winning considerable reputation during the struggle by his services in behalf of the national cause.

He was an earnest, honest-hearted man, who sincerely desired to do his duty to the country. His mistakes were due to his temperament, and proceeded from no desire to serve his own interests or those of any party. In his public life he was incorruptible. A man of ardent nature, strong convictions and indomitable will, it was not possible that he should avoid errors, or fail to stir up a warm and determined opposition to his policy.

Soldiers Return to their Homes.

The first duty devolving upon the new administration was the disbanding of the army, which, at the close of the war, numbered over a million men. It was prophesied by foreign nations, and feared by many persons at home, that the sudden return of such a large body of men to the pursuits of civil life would be attended with serious evils, but both the Union and Confederate soldiers went back quietly and readily to their old avocations. Thus did these citizen-soldiers give to the world a splendid exhibition of the triumph of law and order in a free country, and a proof of the stability of our institutions.

On the 29th of March, 1867, a treaty was concluded between the United States and Russia, by which the latter power sold to the United States, for the sum of seven million two hundred thousand dollars, all of the region in the extreme northwestern part of the American continent known as Russian America. The treaty was ratified by the Senate on the 9th of April. The new territory added to the area of the United States a district of about five hundred and seventy-seven thousand three hundred and ninety square miles.

In the same year a treaty was negotiated with China, through an embassy from that country, which visited the United States under the charge of Anson Burlingame, formerly the American Minister to China. It was the first instance in which that exclusive nation had ever sought to negotiate a treaty of commerce and friendship with a foreign nation. Liberty of conscience to Americans in China, protection of their property and persons, and important commercial privileges were secured by this treaty.

CHAPTER XXXII.

ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT GRANT.

IN the fall of 1868, the Presidential election was held. The Republican party nominated General Ulysses S. Grant, the commanding-general of the army, for the Presidency, and Schuyler Colfax, of Indiana, for the Vice-Presidency. The Democratic party nominated Horatio Seymour, of New York, for the Presidency, and Frank P. Blair, of Missouri, for the Vice-Presidency. The election resulted in the choice of General Grant, by a popular vote of 2,985,031, to 2,648,830 votes cast for Mr. Seymour. In the electoral college, Grant received two hundred and seventeen votes, and Seymour seventy-seven. The States of Virginia, Mississippi and Texas were not allowed to take part in this election, being still out of the Union.

General Grant, the eighteenth President of the United States, was inaugurated at Washington with imposing ceremonies, on the 4th of March, 1869. He was born at Mount Pleasant, Ohio, on the 27th of April, 1822. His father was a tanner, and wished him to follow his trade, but the boy had more ambitious hopes, and, at the age of seventeen, a friend secured for him an appointment as a cadet at West Point, where he was educated. Upon graduating, he entered the army. Two years later he was sent to Mexico, and served through the war with that country with distinction. He was specially noticed by his commanders, and was promoted for gallant conduct.



ULYSSES S. GRANT.

Soon after the close of the war, he resigned his commission, and remained in civil life and obscurity until the breaking out of the Civil War, when he volunteered his services, and was commissioned by Governor Yates, colonel of the Twenty-first Illinois regiment. He was soon made a brigadier-general, and fought his first battle at Belmont. His subsequent career has already been related in these pages.

In February, 1869, the two houses of Congress adopted the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, and submitted it to the various States for ratification by them. It was in the following words: "The right of the citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude."

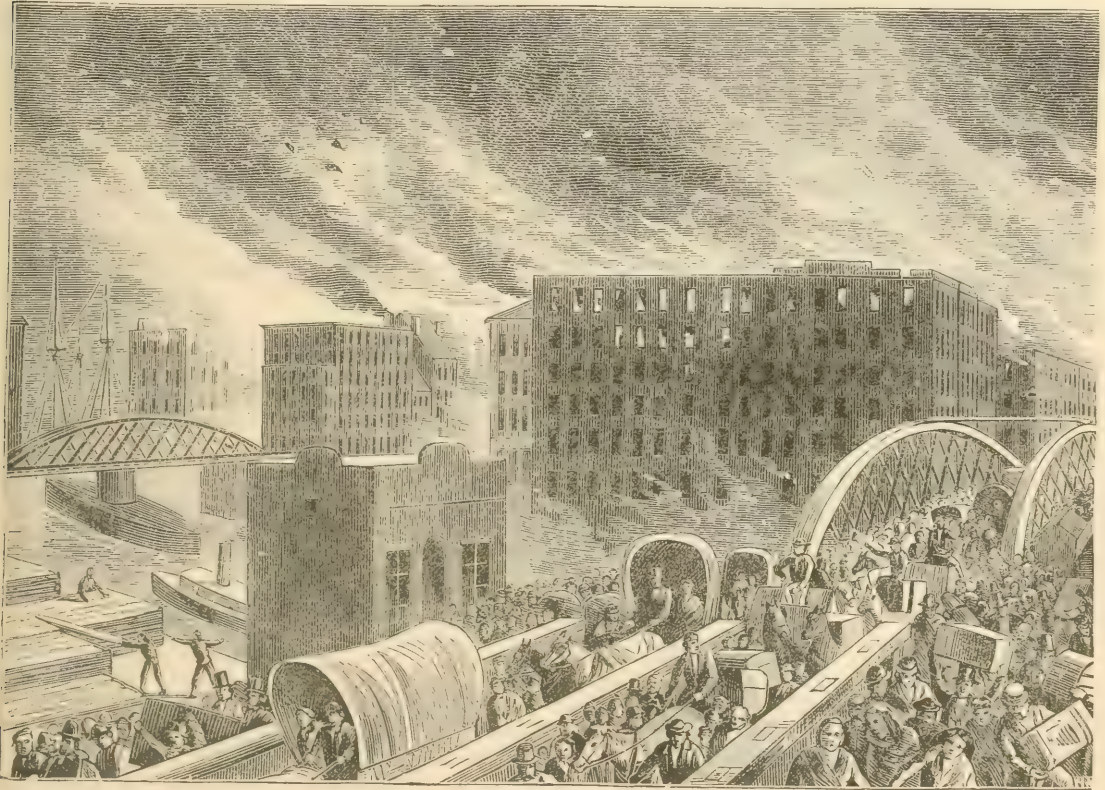
A Great Railroad Across the Continent.

The next important event of this year was the opening of the Pacific railroad, from the Missouri river to the Pacific Ocean. The eastern division of this road is known as the Union Pacific railway, and was begun at Omaha, Neb., in December, 1863, and carried westward. But little progress was made in the work until 1865, when it was pushed rapidly forward. The western division, known as the Central Pacific railway, was begun at San Francisco, near about the same time, and carried eastward across the Sierra Nevada. The two roads unite at Ogden, near Salt Lake City, in Utah, and the union was accomplished on the 10th of May, 1869, on which day the last rail was laid. The Union Pacific railway, from Omaha to Ogden, is one thousand and thirty-two miles in length; the Central Pacific, from Ogden to San Francisco, eight hundred and eight-two miles; making a total line of nineteen hundred and fourteen miles, and constituting by far the most important railway enterprise in the world.

By the completion of this great road, to the construction of which the general government contributed liberally in money and lands, Portland, Me., and San Francisco, the extremes of the continent, are brought within a week's travel. The long and difficult journey across the plains has been dispensed with, and the traveller may now pass over this once terrible and dangerous route with speed and safety, enjoying all the while the highest comforts of the most advanced civilization.

On the night of Sunday, October 8, 1871, a fire broke out in the city of Chicago, and raged with tremendous violence for two days, laying the

greater part of the city in ashes. It was the most destructive conflagration of modern times. The total area of the city burned over was two thousand one hundred and twenty-four acres, or very nearly three and one-third square miles. The number of buildings destroyed was seventeen thousand four hundred and fifty. About two hundred and fifty persons died from various causes during the conflagration, and ninety-eight thousand persons were rendered homeless by it. The entire business quarter



THE BURNING OF CHICAGO.

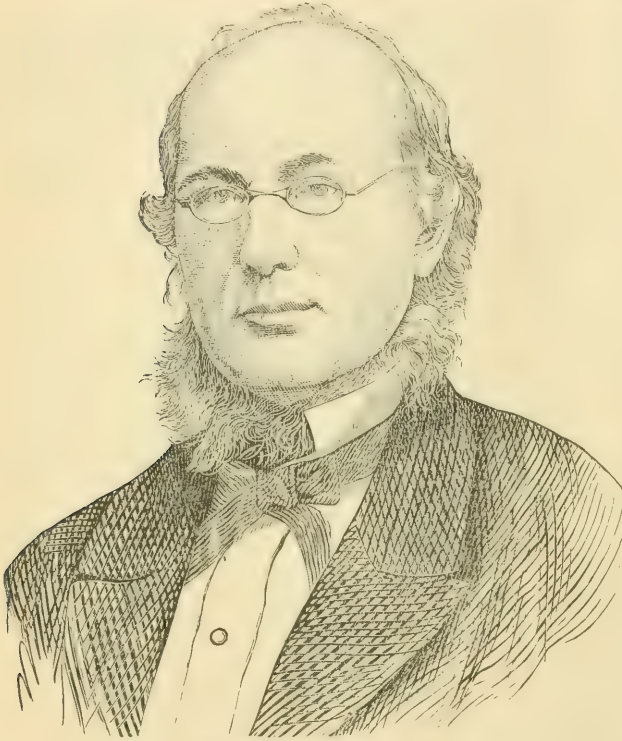
was destroyed. The actual loss will never be known. As far as it can be ascertained, it was about one hundred and ninety-six millions of dollars.

Almost simultaneous with this disaster extensive forest fires swept over the woods of Wisconsin, Minnesota and Michigan. Whole villages were destroyed by the flames, which travelled with such speed that it was often impossible for the fleetest horse to escape from them. Over fifteen hundred people perished in Wisconsin alone.

These terrible calamities aroused the generous sympathy of the rest of

the country, and aid in money, clothing and the necessities of life was liberally extended to the sufferers in Chicago and the other afflicted communities. The telegraph flashed the news across the Atlantic, and in an almost incredibly short time liberal contributions in money came pouring in from England and continental Europe, and even from the far-off cities of India.

In the fall of 1872 the Presidential election occurred. The canvass



HORACE GREELEY.

was marked by the most intense partisan bitterness. The Republican party renominated General Grant for the Presidency, and supported Henry Wilson for the Vice-Presidency. The measures of the administration had arrayed a large number of Republicans against it. These now organized themselves as the Liberal Republican party, and nominated Horace Greeley, of New York, for the Presidency, and B. Gratz Brown, of Missouri, for the Vice-Presidency. The Democratic party made no nominations, and its convention endorsed the candidates of the Liberal Republican party. The election resulted

in the triumph of the Republican candidates by overwhelming majorities.

The elections were scarcely over, when the country was saddened by the death of Horace Greeley. He had been one of the founders of the Republican party, and had been closely identified with the political history of the country for over thirty years. He was the "Founder of the *New York Tribune*," and had done good service with his journal in behalf of the cause he believed to be founded in right.

He was a man of simple and child-like character, utterly unaffected, and generous to a fault. In his manner and dress he was eccentric, but nature had made him a true gentleman at heart. His intellectual ability

was conceded by all. His experience in public life, and his natural disposition, induced him to favor a policy of conciliation in the settlement of the reconstruction question, and, influenced by these convictions, he signed the bail-bond of Jefferson Davis, and secured the release of the fallen leader of the South from his imprisonment.

This act cost him a large part of his popularity in the North. He accepted the Presidential nomination of the Liberal party, in the belief that his election would aid in bringing about a better state of feeling between the North and the South. He was attacked by his political opponents with a bitterness which caused him much suffering, and many of his old friends deserted him, and joined in the warfare upon him. Just before the close of the canvass, his wife, to whom he was tenderly attached, died, and his grief for her, and the excitement and sorrow caused him by the political contest, broke down his firmness and unsettled his mind. He was conveyed by his friends to a private asylum, where he died on the 29th of November, 1872, in the sixty-second year of his age.

Destructive Fire in Boston.

On the 9th of November, 1872, a fire occurred in Boston, and burned until late on the 10th, sweeping over an area of sixty-five acres in the centre of the wholesale trade of the city, and destroying property to the amount of seventy-eight million dollars. As this fire was confined to the business quarter of the city, comparatively few persons were deprived of their homes.

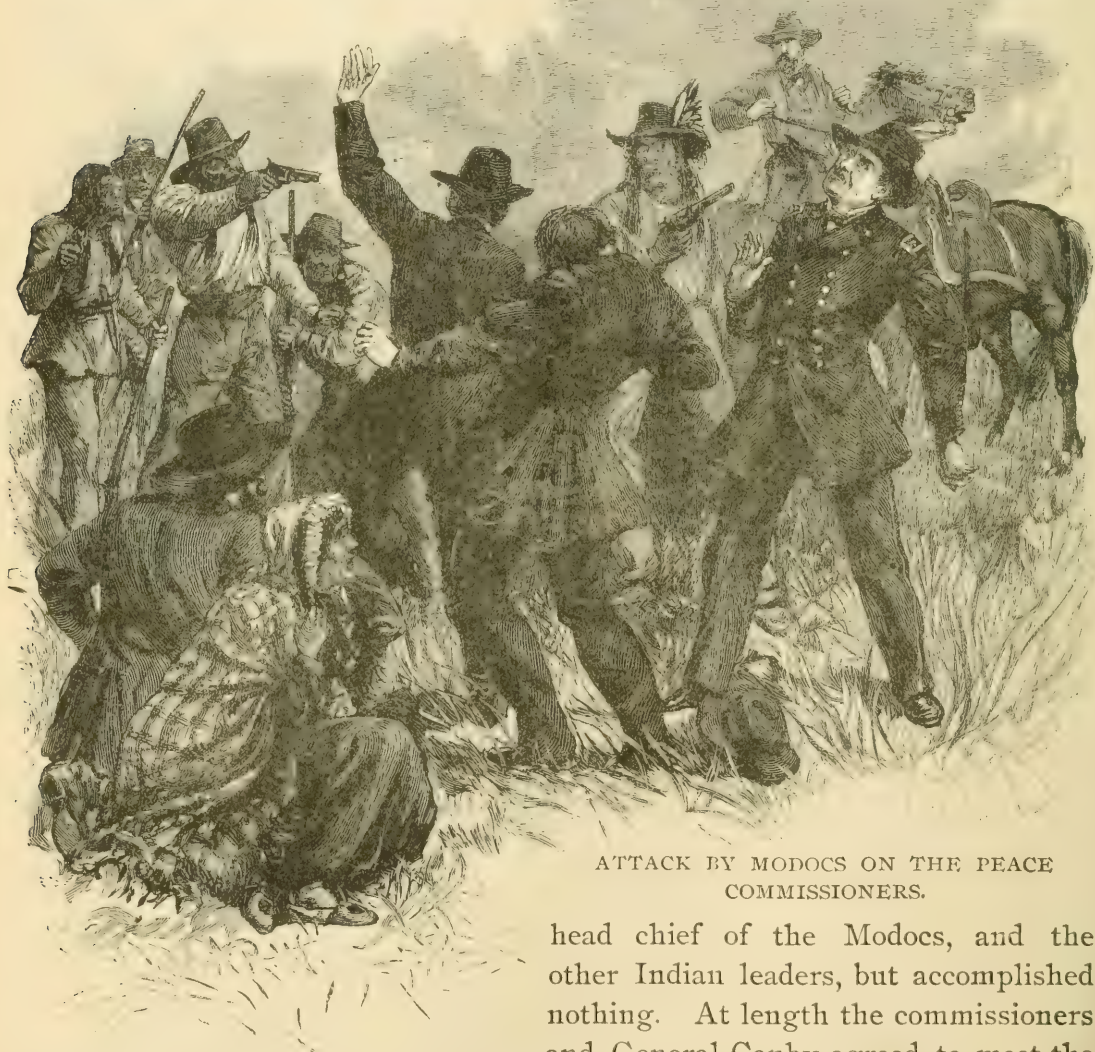
On the 4th of March, 1873, President Grant was inaugurated a second time, at Washington, with great pomp. Twelve thousand troops took part in the procession, which escorted him to the capitol.

Early in 1873, a troublesome war began with the Modoc Indian tribe, on the Pacific coast. These Indians had been removed by the government from their old homes in California to reservations in the northern part of Oregon. They at length became dissatisfied with their new location, which they declared was unable to afford them a support, and began a series of depredations upon the settlements of the whites, which soon drew upon them the vengeance of the Federal government.

Troops were sent against them, but they retreated to their fastnesses in the lava beds, where they maintained a successful resistance for several months. The government at length reinforced the troops operating against

them, and General Canby, commanding the department of the Pacific, assumed the immediate command of the troops in the field.

At the same time a commission was appointed by the government to endeavor to settle the quarrel with the Indians peaceably. This commission held several conferences with Captain Jack, the



ATTACK BY MODOCS ON THE PEACE COMMISSIONERS.

head chief of the Modocs, and the other Indian leaders, but accomplished nothing. At length the commissioners and General Canby agreed to meet the Indians in the lava beds, a short distance in advance of the lines of the troops. They went unarmed and without an escort. While the conference was in progress, the Indians suddenly rose upon the commissioners, and killed all

but one, who managed to escape with severe wounds. General Canby was shot down at the same time, and died instantly.

The Indians at once fled to their strongholds amid the rocks. The troops, infuriated by the murder of their commander, closed in upon them from all sides, and shut them in the lava beds. Their position was one which a handful of men might defend against an army, and they held it with a desperate determination. They were dislodged finally by the shells of the American guns, and such as were not killed were captured. Captain Jack and his associates in the murder of General Canby and the commissioners were tried by court-martial and sentenced to death. They were hanged in the presence of their countrymen and of the troops on the 3d of October, 1873.

The year 1875 completed the period of one hundred years from the opening of the revolution, and the events of 1775 were celebrated with appropriate commemorative ceremonies in the places where they occurred. The centennial anniversary of the battles at Lexington and Concord was celebrated at those places on the 19th of April, with great rejoicings. On the 17th of June the centennial of Bunker Hill was celebrated at Charlestown. Vast crowds were present from all parts of the country.

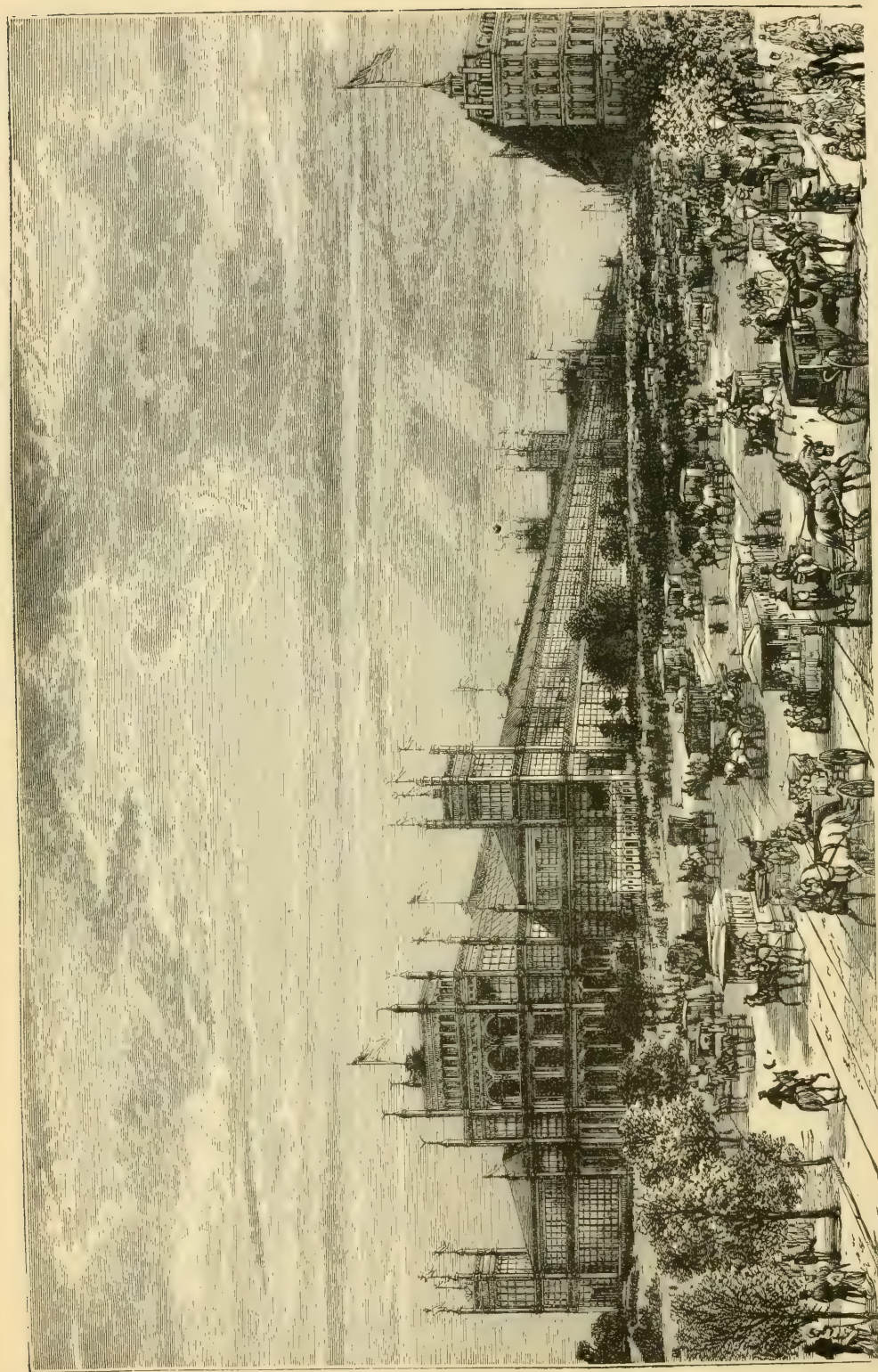
One of the most gratifying features of the celebration was the presence and hearty participation in the ceremonies of a large number of troops from the Southern States. Nearly all of these had served in the Confederate army, and their presence in the metropolis of New England was an emphatic proof that the Union has indeed been restored. The memory of the common glory won by the fathers of the republic has already done much to heal the wounds and obliterate the scars of the civil war. May the good work go on.



OBVERSE OF CENTENNIAL MEDAL.



REVERSE OF CENTENNIAL MEDAL.



VIEW OF THE MAIN BUILDING OF THE INTERNATIONAL CENTENNIAL EXHIBITION.

One thousand eight hundred and eighty feet in length, and four hundred and sixty-four feet wide.

As early as 1872 measures were set on foot for the proper observance of the one hundredth anniversary of the independence of the United States. It was resolved to commemorate the close of the first century of the republic by an international exhibition, to be held at Philadelphia in 1876, in which all the nations of the world were invited to participate. Preparations were at once set on foot for the great celebration.

The European governments with great cordiality responded to the invitations extended to them by the government of the United States, and on the 10th of May, 1876, the International Centennial Exhibition was opened with the most imposing ceremonies, in the presence of an immense concourse of citizens from all parts of the Union, and of the President of the United States and the Emperor of Brazil. The exhibition remained open from May 10th to November 10th, 1876, and was visited by several million people from the various States of the Union, from Canada, South America and Europe. It was one of the grandest and most notable events of the century, and illustrated our country's progress.

The exhibition was held in the city of Philadelphia, which, as it was the nation's birthplace, was the most appropriate site for the centennial commemoration. Multitudes of people visited Independence Hall, Carpenter's Hall, and other objects of interest associated with the country's history. The year witnessed a great revival of the patriotic spirit, as well as showing the vast and rapid strides made by the republic in every department of science and industry during the century. The exhibition was also serviceable in extending our commercial relations with foreign countries and opening markets for American products.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

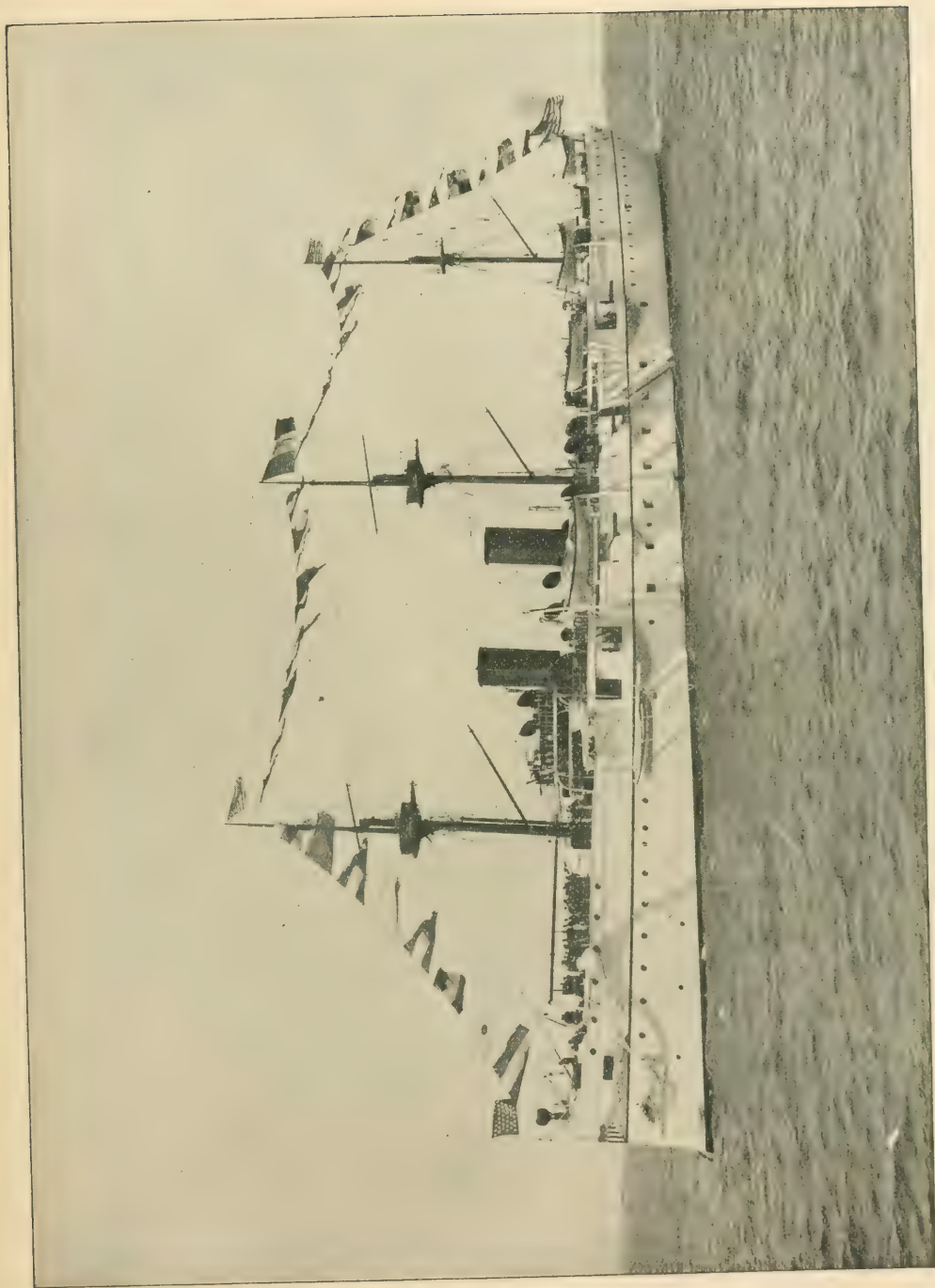
ASSASSINATION OF PRESIDENT GARFIELD.

RUTHERFORD B. HAYES, the nineteenth President of the United States, was publicly inaugurated at Washington on Monday, March 5th, 1877. As the 4th of March fell on Sunday, the President-elect simply took the oath of office on that day. The inaugural ceremonies were carried out on the 5th at the Capitol with the usual pomp and parade, and in the presence of an enormous multitude of citizens and visiting military organizations from all parts of the country. After the customary reception by the Senate, the new President was escorted to the eastern portico of the Capitol, where he delivered his inaugural address to the assembled multitude, after which the oath of office was publicly administered to him by Chief Justice Waite.

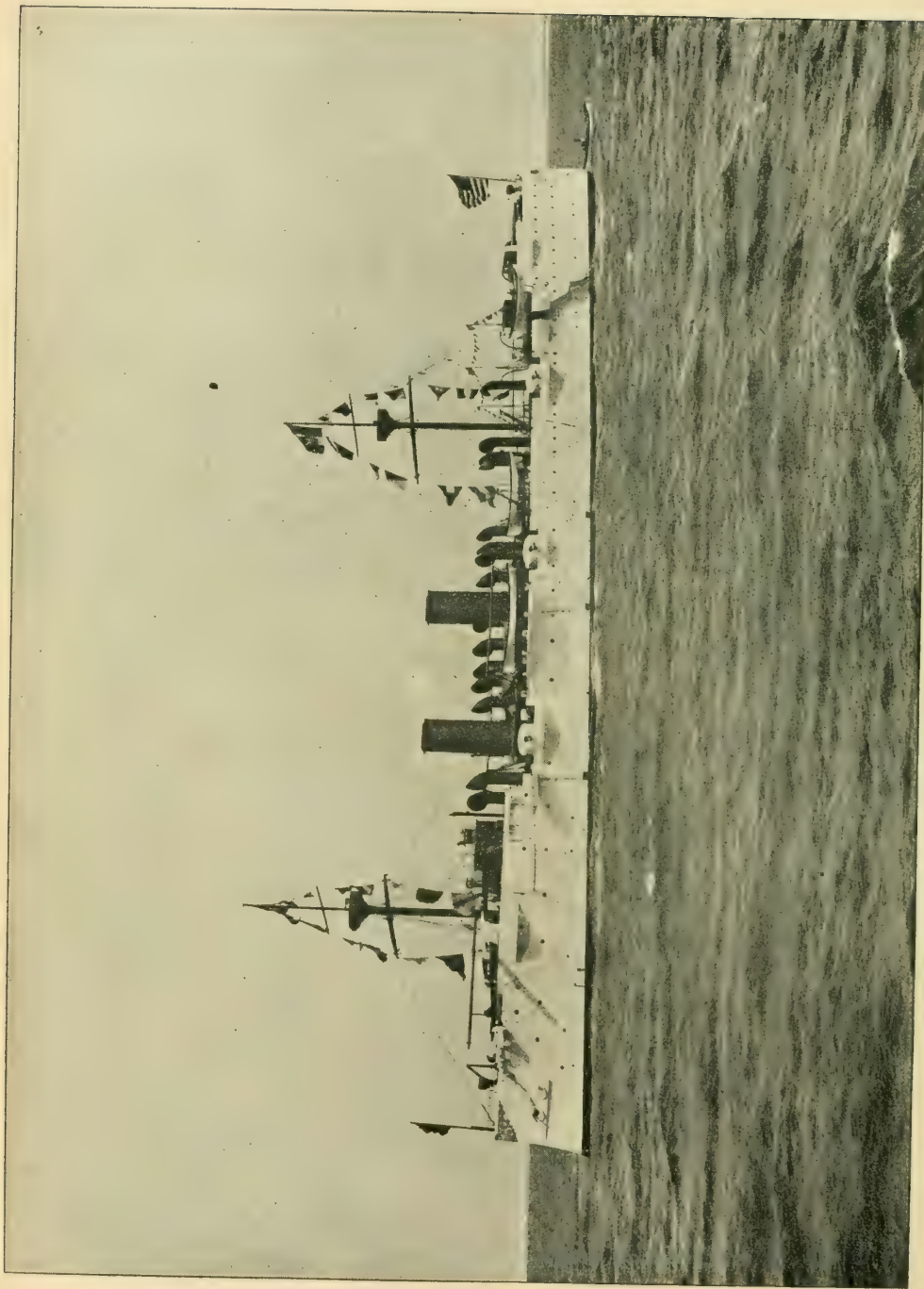
The new President was a native of Ohio, having been born at Delaware, in that State, on the 4th of October, 1822. He graduated at Kenyon College, Gambier, Ohio, and obtained his professional education at the Cambridge Law School. He began the practice of the law at Cincinnati in 1856. He was shortly afterwards made City Solicitor, which office he held until the beginning of the civil war in 1861.

Soon after the opening of the war he enlisted in the Twenty-third Ohio Volunteers, with which regiment he served as major, lieutenant-colonel and colonel. He led his regiment, which formed a part of General Reno's division, at the battle of South Mountain, in September, 1862, and was severely wounded in the arm in that engagement.

In the fall of 1862 he was made colonel of the regiment, and in 1864 was promoted to the rank of brigadier-general of volunteers "for gallant and meritorious services in the battles of Winchester, Fisher's Hill and Cedar Creek," and was brevetted major-general "for gallant and distinguished services during the campaigns of 1864 in West Virginia, and particularly in the battles of Fisher's Hill and Cedar Creek." At the time of this last promotion he was in command of a division. He served until the close of the war, receiving four wounds and having five horses



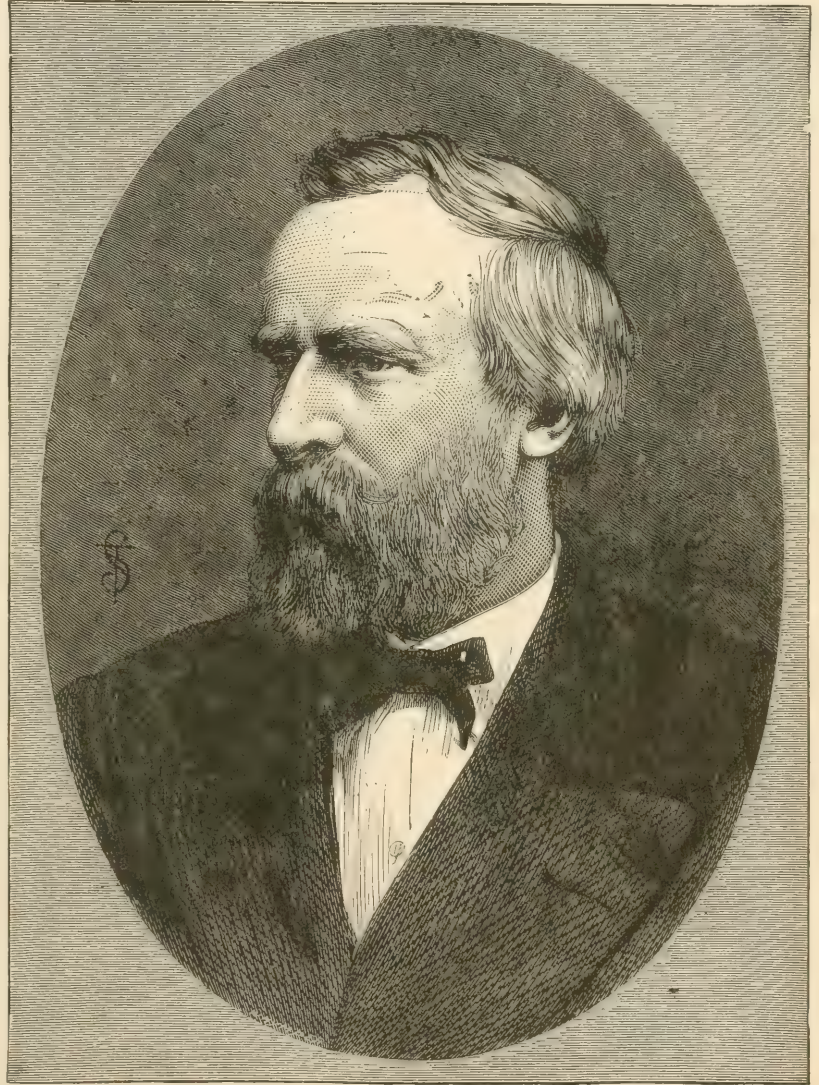
U. S. CRUISER SAN FRANCISCO



U. S. CRUISER BALTIMORE.

shot under him during his military career. In the fall of 1864 he was elected to Congress, and was returned a second time in 1866.

In 1867, before the expiration of his Congressional term, he was elected Governor of Ohio, and was re-elected to that office in 1869, being each time the candidate of the Republican party. In 1870 General Hayes was again elected to Congress, and in 1874 was nominated for a third term as Governor of Ohio. His opponent was Governor William Allen, one of the most popular of the Democratic leaders of Ohio. General Hayes was elected by a handsome majority. In March, 1877, he resigned this office to enter upon his new duties as President of the United States. President



RUTHERFORD B. HAYES.

Hayes, in his letter accepting the nomination of his party for the Presidency, declared that if elected he would earnestly and faithfully seek to do justice to the States of the South, and reform the civil service of the country by ridding it of corrupt men, and requiring a faithful discharge

of duty at the hands of every public officer. Immediately upon his inauguration he set to work to make good his promises. He selected his cabinet from among the ablest men in the country, making ability, and not partisan service, the test of the fitness of the persons selected.

In the summer of 1880 the various political parties of the country met in convention to nominate candidates for the Presidency and Vice-Presidency of the United States. The Republican Convention met at Chicago

on the 2d of June, and nominated James A. Garfield, of Ohio, for President, and Chester A. Arthur, of New York, for Vice-President. The Democratic Convention met in Cincinnati, on the 22d of June, and nominated Winfield Scott Hancock, of Pennsylvania, for President, and William H. English, of Indiana, for Vice-President. The Greenback Convention met at Chicago, on the 9th of June, and nominated James A. Weaver, of Iowa, for President, and B. J. Chambers, of Texas, for Vice-President.

The election was held on the 2d of November and resulted in the choice of General James A. Garfield, who received 214 elec-

toral votes to 155 electoral votes cast for General Hancock. The popular vote cast was as follows: Garfield, 4,437,345; Hancock, 4,435,015; Weaver, 305,931.

On the second Wednesday in February, 1881, the two Houses of Congress met in joint-session in the hall of the House of Representatives, for the purpose of counting the electoral vote. The certificates of the electoral colleges of the various States having been opened and read, with the result mentioned above, the Vice-President announced that James A. Garfield had been duly elected President of the United States, and Chester A. Arthur Vice-President, for the term of four years, from the 4th of March, 1881.



JAMES A. GARFIELD.

The result of the election was cordially accepted by the country, and the nation began to look forward to a new era of prosperity and happiness.

On Friday, March 4, 1881, the inauguration ceremonies took place upon a scale of unusual magnificence, and were participated in by numerous military and civic organizations, and by thousands of citizens from all parts of the country. After the new Vice-President had taken the oath of office, President-elect Garfield was formally received by the Senate, and escorted to the eastern portico of the capitol, where, in the presence of an immense multitude of citizens and soldiery, he delivered an able and eloquent inaugural address, and took the oath of office at the hands of Chief-Justice Waite.

The new President had been long and favorably known to his countrymen. He was in his fiftieth year, and in vigorous health. A man of commanding presence, he was dignified and courteous in his demeanor, accessible to the humblest citizen, and deservedly popular with men of all parties. Born a poor boy, without influential friends, he had by his own efforts secured a thorough collegiate education, and had carefully fitted himself for the arduous duties he was now called upon to discharge.

Promoted to the Rank of Major-General.

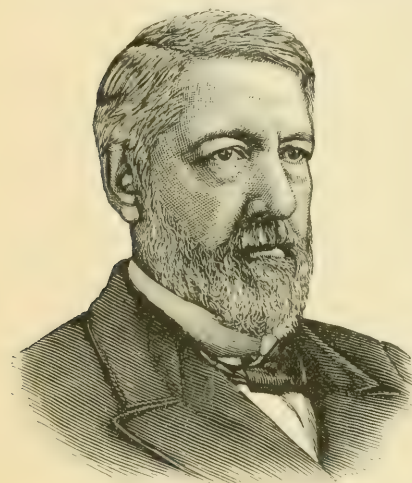
Entering the army at the outbreak of the civil war, he had won a brilliant reputation as a soldier, and had been promoted to the rank of major-general of volunteers. Elected to Congress from Ohio, in 1862, he had entered the House of Representatives in December, 1863, and had seen almost eighteen years of constant service in that body, in which he had long ranked as one of the most brilliant and trusted leaders of the Republican party. Early in 1880 he had been chosen a United States Senator from Ohio, but had been prevented from taking his seat in the Senate by his election to the Presidency.

Immediately after his inauguration he sent to the Senate for confirmation the names of the members of his cabinet. They were chosen from among the leading members of the conservative portion of the Republican party, and were headed by James G. Blaine, of Maine, as secretary of state. They were at once confirmed by the Senate, and the new administration embarked upon its short-lived career.

Very soon after entering upon his duties President Garfield found that the Executive chair was by no means a bed of roses. The Republican

party soon divided into two sections, one known as the "conservative," supporting the administration, and the other known as the "stalwarts," opposing it. A bitter partisan quarrel sprang up between these two wings of the party, and prolonged the Executive session of the senate until late in June. The quarrel was the fiercest over the appointment of a new collector for the port of New York, and culminated in the resignation of their seats in the senate by Senators Conkling and Platt, of New York, on the sixteenth of May.

The resignation of these gentlemen was based upon the ground that the President had nominated Judge Robertson to be collector of the port of New York, without consulting or yielding to the wishes of the Senators from that State, the said Senators in effect claiming the right to determine what appointments should or should not be made by the President in their State. The President, on his part, insisted upon his right to nominate to office any man whom he should deem worthy of the trust.



JAMES G. BLAINE.

The struggle was in reality a contest for the independence of the Executive in the matter of public appointments, and President Garfield was warmly supported by the great mass of the nation, without regard to party. He, therefore, pursued with unshaken firmness the policy he had determined upon. After the resignation of Senators Conkling and Platt, the nomination of Judge Robertson was confirmed by the Senate.

As the time wore on, President Garfield gained steadily in the esteem of his countrymen. His purpose to give to the nation a fair and just administration of the government was every day more apparent, and his high and noble qualities became more conspicuous. Men began to feel that the Executive chair was occupied by a President capable of conceiving a pure and noble standard of duty, and possessed of the firmness and strength of will necessary to carry it into execution. The country was prosperous, and there was every reason to expect a continuance of the general happiness.

Soon after the opening of President Garfield's administration, the Post-

master-General discovered that certain contracts for carrying the mails on what are known as "The Star Routes," were fraudulent, and that the persons interested in them were defrauding the government of large sums of money. The President, Postmaster-General and Attorney-General, sustained by the other members of the Cabinet, without exception, thereupon resolved to bring the guilty parties to justice.

The latter, being men of wealth and position, bitterly resented the course of the government, and violently denounced it. Nevertheless, the



THE ASSASSINATION OF JAMES A. GARFIELD.

President caused measures looking to the punishment of the accused parties to be begun, and only the unexpected adjournment of the grand jury and court prevented a formal indictment from being brought against them. Before other measures could be taken, the attention of the entire nation was occupied by an event of graver importance.

While these matters were still in progress, President Garfield began preparations for a brief pleasure trip to Long Branch, where Mrs. Garfield was recovering from a severe illness; intending from that point to visit New England, and be present at the commencement exercises of his *alma*

mater, Williams' College, in Massachusetts. He was to be accompanied by a distinguished party, including several members of the Cabinet.

On the morning of the 2d of July, the party proceeded to the Baltimore and Potomac depot, where they were to take the cars, in advance of the President, who arrived soon after, in company with Secretary Blaine, who came simply to see him off, and say good-bye. They left the President's carriage together, and sauntered arm-in-arm through the depot towards the cars.

In passing through the ladies' waiting-room, the President was fired at twice by a man named Charles J. Guiteau. The first shot inflicted a slight wound in the President's right arm, and the second a terrible wound in the right side of his back, between the hip and the kidney. The President fell heavily to the floor, and the assassin was secured as he was seeking to make his escape from the building, and was conveyed to a police station, from which he was subsequently taken to prison.

Hastily Removed to the White House.

The President lay helpless upon the floor of the waiting-room, the blood flowing copiously from both his wounds. As soon as those near him recovered from the dismay into which the tragedy had thrown them, he was placed upon a mattress, physicians were summoned, and he was conveyed to an upper room in the depot. He bore his sufferings with great firmness, and from the first displayed a cool courage that won the warm admiration of the country. The surgeons summoned were soon at hand, and found that the President's injuries were very critical. It was decided to remove him to the Executive Mansion, and he was carried down the stairs, placed in an army ambulance and driven rapidly to the White House.

Arriving there he was conveyed to his wife's chamber, overlooking the Potomac, and placed in bed. Two attempts were made by the surgeons to find the ball—one at the depot, and one at the White House after his arrival there—but both were unsuccessful. Grave fears were entertained by the surgeons for the President's life, and Mrs. Garfield was summoned by telegraph from Long Branch. She arrived during the evening.

The news of the attempt upon the President's life spread rapidly throughout the Union, and was everywhere received with horror and indignation. During the afternoon his condition became more alarming, and bulletins were issued by the surgeons in charge at frequent intervals,

giving the latest news of the state of the illustrious sufferer. These were telegraphed to all parts of the country, and were watched with eager impatience by vast crowds of citizens wherever they were posted. The sympathy of the whole nation went out warmly towards the wounded President and his afflicted family; and from the governments and nations of Europe messages of inquiry and sympathy were constantly received through the Atlantic cable. During the entire period of the President's illness the official bulletins were issued three times each day, and the nation was thus kept informed of his condition.

Courageous and Cheerful under Suffering.

The best medical and surgical skill of the country was employed in the effort to save the President's life, and throughout the whole period of his illness he never lost his calm courage, but displayed a firmness and cheerfulness that astonished his attendants, and encouraged them to hope for a favorable result.

The afternoon of the 2d of July wore anxiously away, no signs of a reaction being manifested, but after the arrival of Mrs. Garfield, in the evening, the President began to rally slightly. The night was passed in anxious suspense. On the morning of the 3d the President was calm and cheerful, though he fully realized the gravity of his situation. He told Dr. Bliss, the surgeon in charge of his case, that he wished to know exactly what his chances for life were; that, while he desired to live, he was prepared to die, and did not fear to learn the worst. Dr. Bliss replied that, though his injuries were formidable, he had, in his judgment, a chance for his life. "Well, Doctor," exclaimed the sufferer, with a cheerful smile, "we'll take that chance."

The day passed away without any event of importance, and the anxious nation, as well as the President's attendants, drew some hope from the fact he continued "to hold his own." The popular anxiety and sympathy were strikingly manifested on the Fourth of July, the anniversary of the National Independence, in the listless and careless manner in which the day was celebrated. The people were too much engrossed with their anxiety to take part in any demonstration of joy.

The two months following the wounding of President Garfield dragged wearily away, the patient at times showing symptoms of marked improvement, and at others experiencing dangerous relapses. The nation alternated

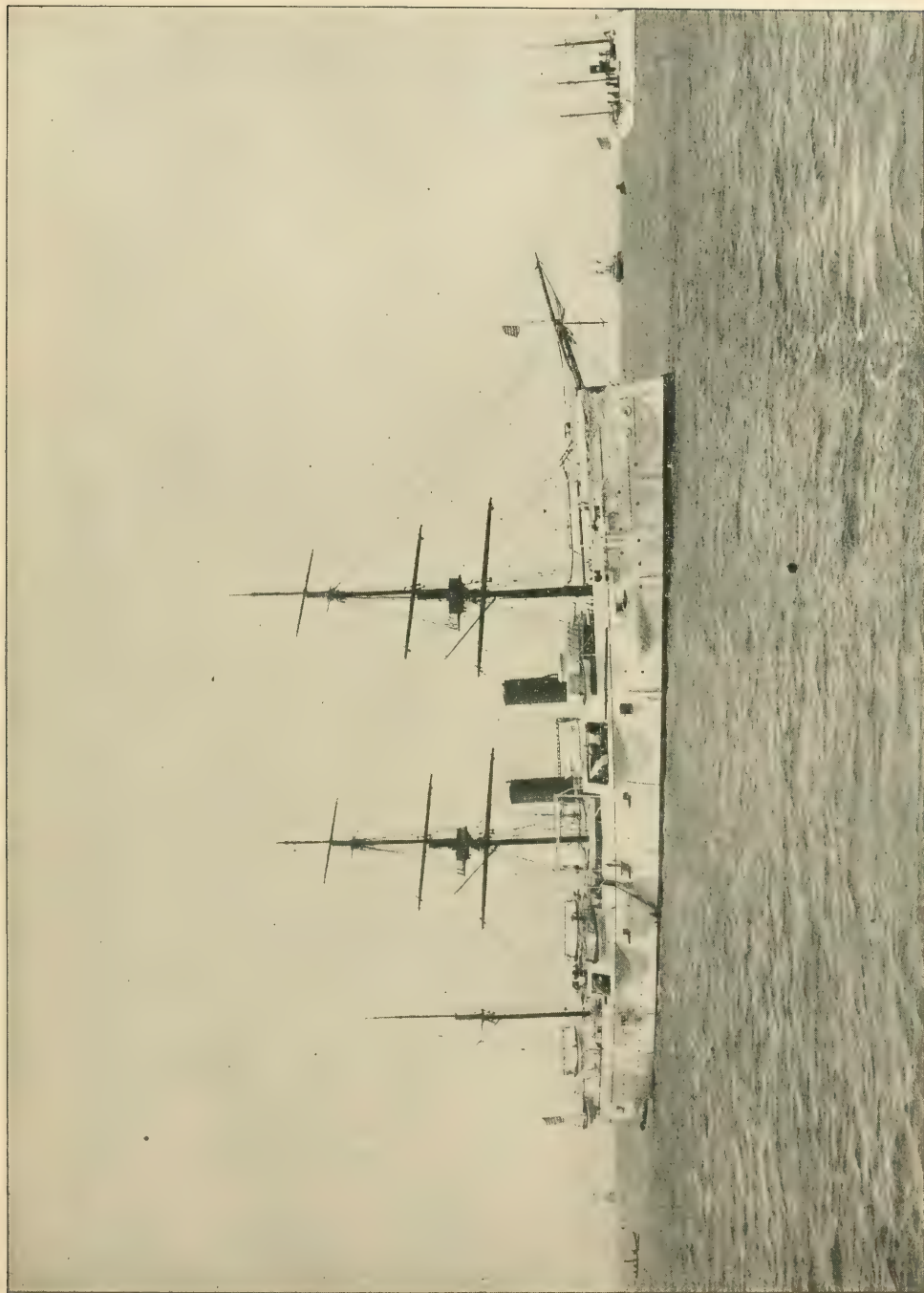
between hope and despair, and was kept all the while in a most painful suspense. The surgeons in charge, however, recognized the true character of the wound from the first, and while they hoped for a recovery, could not conceal from themselves the fact that such a result would be almost miraculous.

The President's sufferings were very great during this period, and were increased by the intense heat of the season and the unhealthy surroundings of the White House. Yet he bore them all with unshaken firmness and unalterable cheerfulness. Dr. Bliss, his chief surgeon, writes of him during this period: "The time which passed until the 23d of July, when the first rigor occurred, was chiefly remarkable for the quiet, cool determination of the sufferer. Quite ready for, and evidently expecting the worst, his demeanor was that of the man whose great intellect and wonderful will enabled him to give the most intelligent aid to the physician. Apparently indifferent as to result, so far as it should affect him alone, he still watched every symptom, even making inquiry after each examination as to the temperature, pulse and respiration, and every measure of relief adopted, with evidently firm determination to live for others if possible."

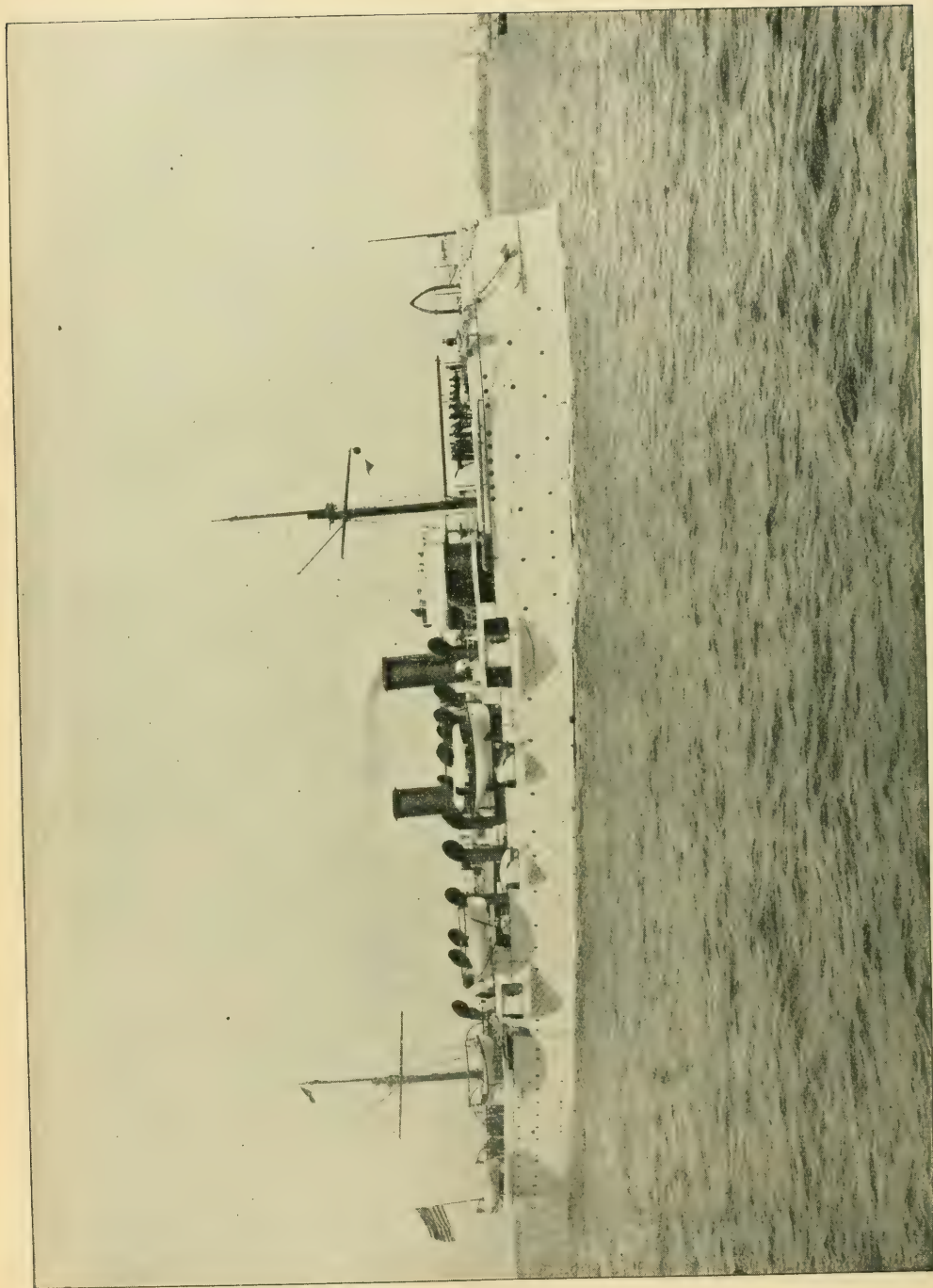
Conveyed to Long Branch by Special Train

Towards the last of August the surgeons in attendance upon the President resolved to remove him from the White House to a more healthful locality. The removal was a risk, but not so great a risk as to permit him to remain in the malarious atmosphere which surrounded the Executive Mansion, and which was rapidly destroying the little strength left him. It was decided to convey him to Long Branch, in the hope that the pure and bracing air of the sea would enable him to regain some of his lost vitality.

Accordingly, on the 6th of September, the President, accompanied by his family, his surgeons and attendants, was conveyed to Long Branch in a train specially prepared for the purpose. The journey was made quickly and successfully, and after reaching Long Branch the President seemed to rally. For the first few days after his arrival at the seashore his symptoms were so much better that renewed hope sprang up in the hearts of his countrymen. It was only for a brief period, however. On the 16th of September there was a marked change for the worse, with unmistakable evidences of increasing weakness in mind and body.



U. S. CRUISER CHICAGO



U. S. CRUISER PHILADELPHIA

On the 17th the President sank still lower, and in the forenoon was seized with a severe rigor. On the evening of the 18th another alarming rigor occurred, followed by other grave symptoms. From this time the President continued to grow worse. On the morning of the 19th he was attacked with another severe rigor, but after that had passed away appeared more comfortable, and his attendants were more hopeful of a quiet night for him.

Towards nine o'clock in the evening he fell into a quiet sleep, from which he awakened, shortly after ten o'clock, in great pain. General Swaim, who was watching by him, alarmed by the President's symptoms, hastily summoned the family, and the surgeons. The President was unconscious when they arrived, and continued to sink rapidly. Efforts were made to revive him with stimulants, but in vain, and at thirty-five minutes after ten o'clock, the brave struggle was brought to an end, and the soul of James A. Garfield passed into eternity.

The Country Shocked by the President's Death.

The sad news of the death of President Garfield was at once telegraphed to New York, and by eleven o'clock the whole country was aware that its Chief Magistrate was dead. Bells were tolled in every city, town, and village of the Union, and everywhere citizens draped their houses in mourning. Such a display of national sorrow had never been witnessed before.

The news of the death of President Garfield was at once transmitted by telegraph to Vice-President Arthur, by the members of the Cabinet present at Long Branch, and he was advised by them to take the oath of office as President without delay. Accordingly, Justices Brady and Donahoe, of the Supreme Court of New York, were at once summoned by the Vice-President, and, at a little after two o'clock on the morning of the 20th of September, he took the oath of office as President of the United States before them at his private residence in New York.

On the 20th of September, arrangements were made for removing the body of the late President to Washington City, and on the same day an autopsy was held upon the body by the surgeons who had been in attendance upon the President, assisted by several others. The autopsy revealed the fact that the wound had been fatal from the first. On the morning of the 21st, funeral ceremonies were held in the cottage at Long Branch,

in which the President died, and at ten o'clock the remains were placed on board of a special train, and conveyed to Washington, and accompanied by the family and friends of the dead President, and by President Arthur and a number of distinguished personages. Washington was reached at 4.35 in the afternoon, and the body was escorted by a detachment of military and Knights Templar to the Capitol, and laid in state until the 23d.

During the 22d and 23d, it was visited by over one hundred thousand persons. On the afternoon of the 23d, the public funeral services were held in the rotunda of the Capitol, after which the body was escorted to the Baltimore and Potomac depot, and conveyed to Cleveland, Ohio, by a special train. Cleveland was reached the next day, and the remains were laid in state in a structure especially prepared for them, until the morning of the 26th, when they were buried, with the most imposing ceremonies, in Lake View Cemetery, in the suburbs of that city. Business was suspended, and memorial services were held during the day in all parts of the United States.

On the 22d of September, President Arthur again

took the oath of office, this time at the hands of the Chief-Justice of the United States, and was quietly inaugurated in the Vice-President's room, in the Capitol, delivering, upon this occasion, a brief inaugural address.

Soon after the attempt upon the life of President Garfield, a popular subscription was set on foot to provide a fund for the support of his family in the event of his death. The movement was successful, and over \$330,000 were raised, and invested in United States bonds, for the benefit of the widow and children of the "Martyred President."



CHESTER A. ARTHUR.

President Arthur entered quietly upon the duties of his administration, and his first acts were satisfactory to a majority of his countrymen. As he had been the leader of "the Stalwart" section of the Republican party, it was felt by the members of the Cabinet of the late President that he should be free to choose his own advisers. Therefore, immediately upon his accession to the Executive chair, Mr. Blaine and his colleagues tendered him their resignations. They were requested, however, by the new President to retain their offices until he could find suitable successors to them. To this they agreed, but before the year was out several important changes had been made in the Cabinet. The principal of these were the substitution of Frederick T. Frelinghuysen, of New Jersey, for Mr. Blaine, as Secretary of State, and the appointment of Judge Charles J. Folger to the Treasury Department.

President Garfield's Assassin Brought to Trial.

One of the first acts of the new administration was to cause the indictment of Charles J. Guiteau for the murder of President Garfield. The grand jury of the District of Columbia met on the 3d of October, 1881, and promptly found a true bill against Guiteau, who was arraigned in the Criminal Court of the District on the 14th of October. After some delay, the trial of the assassin began on the 14th of November. The first three days were consumed in selecting a jury, and then the trial began in earnest. It ended on the 25th of January, 1882, in the conviction of Guiteau for the murder of the late President. The prisoner was defended by able counsel, and was allowed many privileges never before granted to persons on trial for so grave an offence.

The plea upon which the defence was based was insanity, but the evidence entirely destroyed this assumption, and the verdict of the jury was received throughout the country as just and proper. An effort was made by Guiteau's counsel to obtain a new trial for him, but this was denied by the court, and on the 4th of February Guiteau was sentenced to be hanged, on the 30th of June, 1882. The counsel for the prisoner still continued his efforts to secure a new trial, but these being unsuccessful in each and every instance, his only resource was an appeal to the clemency of the Executive. The President declined, however, to interfere with the sentence.

During the interval between his sentence and his execution, Guiteau was confined in the jail of the District of Columbia, at Washington. His

conduct during this interval was in keeping with that which had marked his trial—vain, egotistical, and blasphemous. To the last the prisoner was confident that President Arthur would interfere in his behalf.



THE BROOKLYN SUSPENSION BRIDGE.

The execution took place in the District jail on the 30th of June, 1882, and was witnessed by about two hundred people, nearly all representatives

of the press. Guiteau displayed more firmness than had been expected of him. He walked to the gallows without making the violent scene which had been anticipated by many, and ascended it with a firm step. Upon the scaffold, however, he displayed considerable emotion, which he quickly subdued. His religious adviser offered a short prayer, and Guiteau read a selection from the Holy Scriptures.

Execution of the Murderer.

Then he read a prayer, strangely at variance with his religious professions, in which he called down the curse of the Almighty upon all who had been engaged in his trial and execution, and upon the nation at large, and denounced President Arthur as a coward and an ingrate. Finally he chanted a poem which he had written during the morning. At the close of this singular recital the trap fell, precisely at forty-three minutes past twelve o'clock, and the great crime against the American people was avenged. Guiteau's neck was broken by the fall, and his death was painless. He died without a struggle, and with scarce a tremor.

On the 27th of October, 1882, the two-hundredth anniversary of the landing of William Penn was celebrated at Philadelphia. The exercises included public addresses, a military display, and an industrial parade. In addition to these there were various historic devices and tableaux, illustrating events in the early history of Pennsylvania. It was estimated that upwards of four hundred thousand persons attended the celebration.

One of the notable events of 1883 was the opening of the great Suspension Bridge over the East river, between New York City and Brooklyn. Work commenced January 3, 1870, and the bridge was opened to the public May 24, 1883. The total cost was \$15,500,000. The total length from New York to Brooklyn is 5,989 feet, and the length of the main span is 1,595½ feet. The height of the towers is 276½ feet. The height of the floor of the bridge at the centre, above high-water mark, is 135 feet. The height of the floor of the bridge at the piers is 118 feet.

The caisson for the New York pier was sunk 78 feet, and that for the Brooklyn pier 45½ feet below the bed of the river. Each cable is 15¼ inches in diameter, and is made up of 5,000 wires, each ⅛ inch in diameter. The anchorages are 930 feet from the towers, and weigh 120,000,000 pounds each. The cables are capable of sustaining 49,200 tons. The weight of the central span is 6,742 tons.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

ADMINISTRATION OF GROVER CLEVELAND.

THE twenty-second President of the United States was Hon. Grover Cleveland. Mr. Cleveland was a native of New Jersey, and was born in Caldwell, Essex County, March 18, 1837. He came from sturdy New England stock, many of his ancestors having held honorable positions in their respective localities.

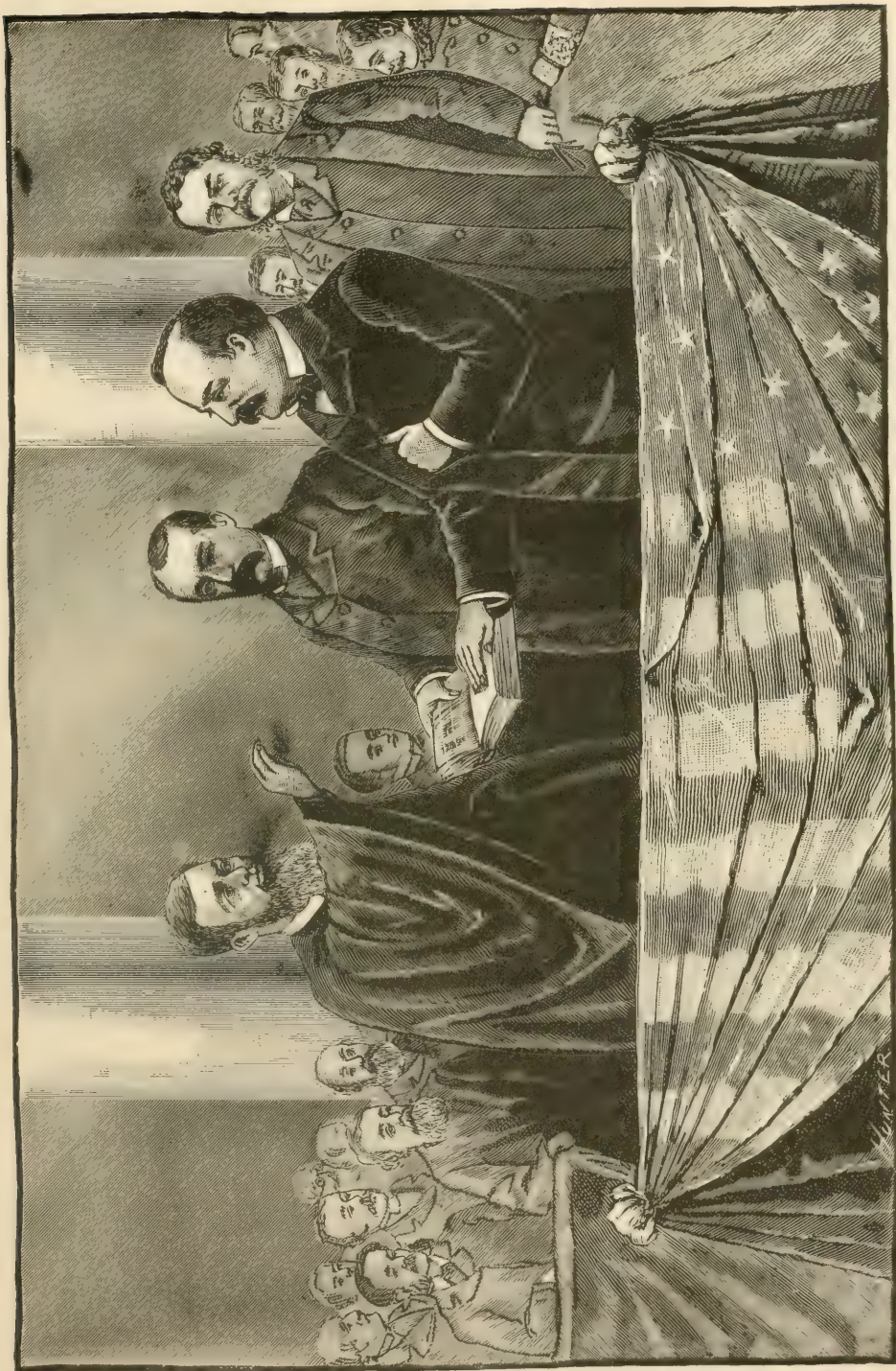


GROVER CLEVELAND.

President Cleveland, after teaching two or three years, studied law in Buffalo, was admitted to the bar, became sheriff of the county, mayor of the city, and, having received the nomination for governor of New York, was elected by a large majority. This was followed by his nomination in the Democratic Convention of 1884, and his election in the following November to the Presidency.

Naturally the departure of the Republican administration, and the return of the Democratic party to power after

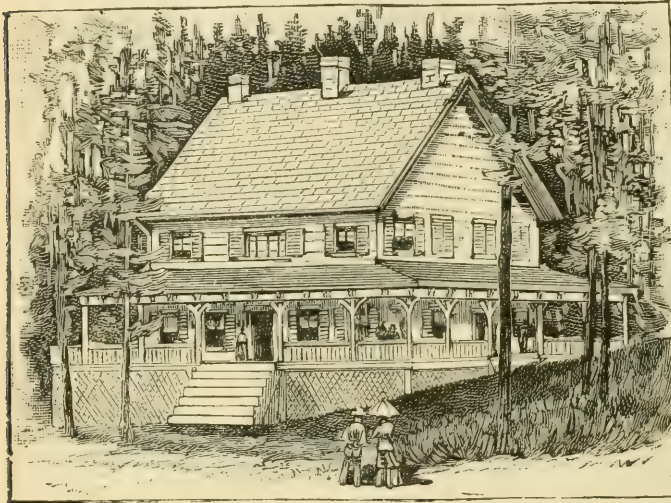
twenty-four years of exile from the highest seats in the councils of the Republic awakened a profound interest. As the 4th of March, 1885, approached, eyes were turned towards Washington, and multitudes went up to the Capitol as to a Mecca. Washington itself, accustomed to civic displays, exciting events and magnificent parades, was more than usually awakened, and an interest was exhibited in the inauguration which overshadowed all other concerns. The representatives of the press throughout the country were there in full force to record the event and depict the scene in its imposing aspects.



CHIEF-JUSTICE WAITE ADMINISTERING THE OATH OF OFFICE TO PRESIDENT CLEVELAND.

The ceremonies incident upon the inauguration presented a pageant exceeding, in civic and military display, any such preceding occasion in the history of the government. There were in attendance more than one hundred thousand visitors, and the city in its profuse decorations was a bewildering maze of bright colors. Among the significant allegorical designs was a great floral ladder reaching to the roof of a business house on Pennsylvania Avenue, which bore upon its rungs the words, "Sheriff," "Mayor," "Governor," "President," thus graphically symbolizing the life-work of the President-elect.

The inaugural of President Cleveland began as follows: "In the pres-

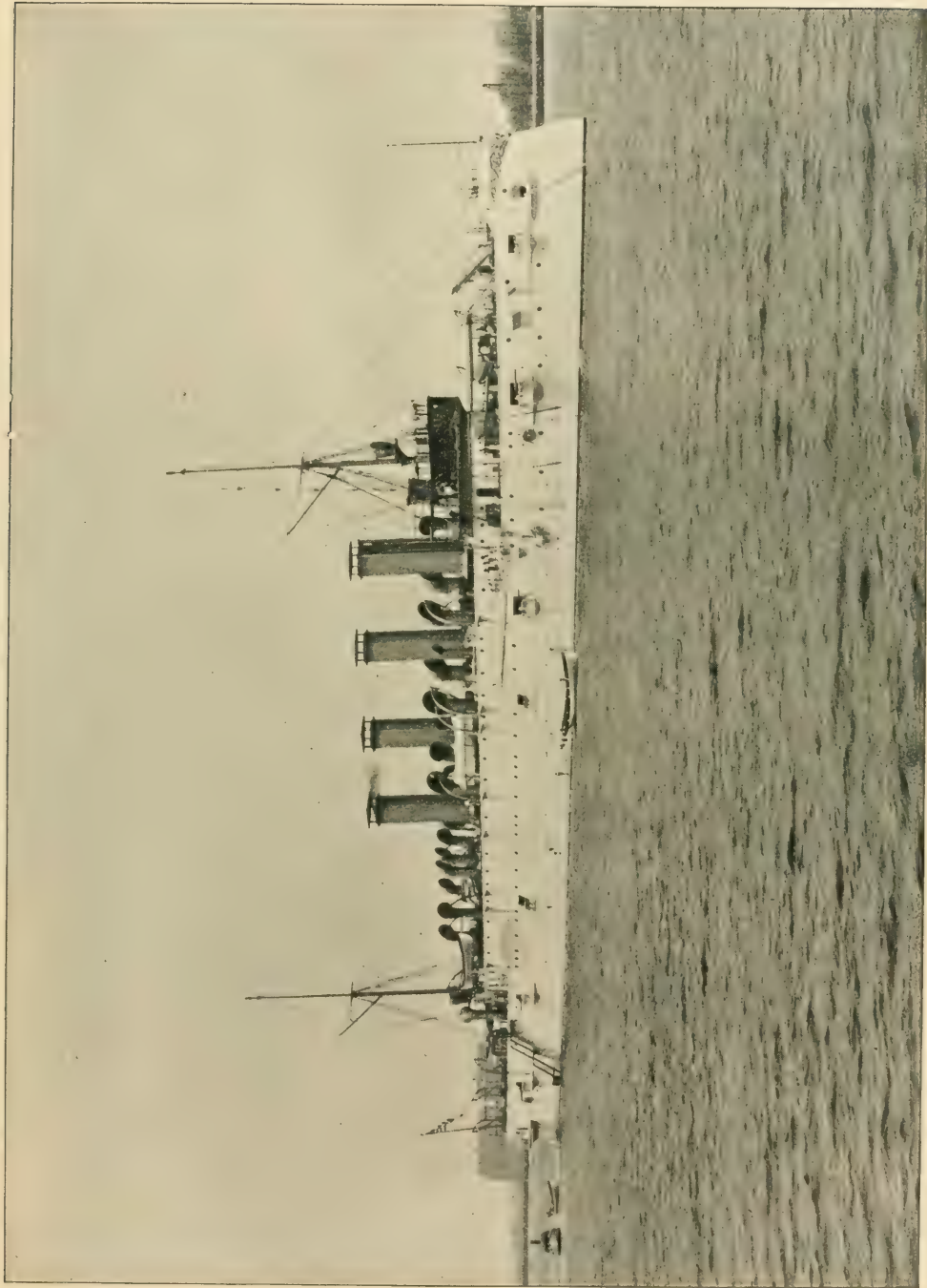


COTTAGE IN WHICH GRANT DIED AT MT. M'GREGOR.

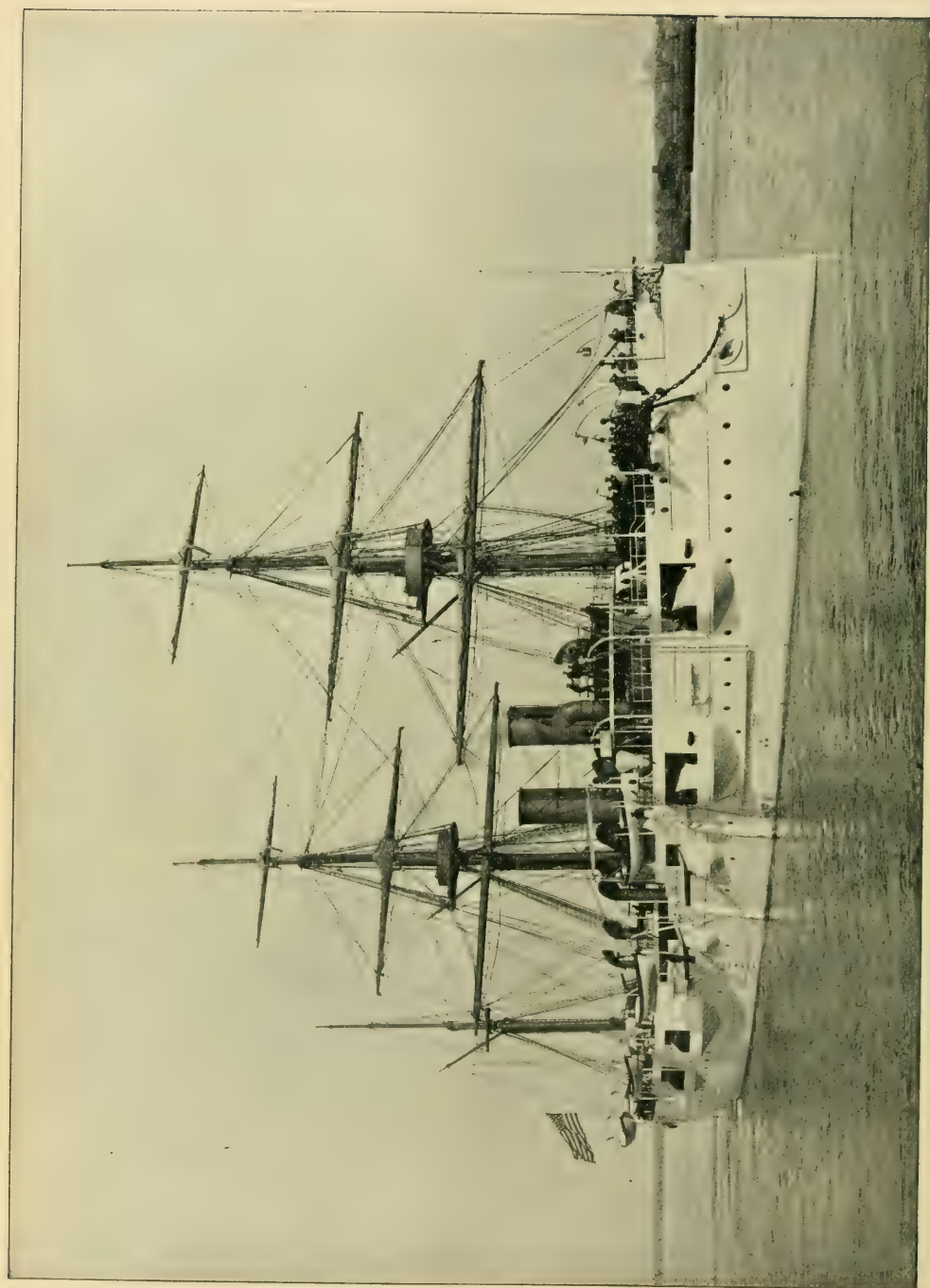
ence of this vast assemblage of my countrymen I am about to supplement and seal by the oath which I shall take the manifestation of the will of a great and free people. In the exercise of their power and right of self-government they have committed to one of their fellow-citizens a supreme and sacred trust, and he here consecrates himself to their service."

On the 4th of March, the day of President Cleveland's inauguration, ex-President Grant was placed on the retired list of the army. For some months previous to this there were ominous rumors respecting the state of his health. The great general who had led the Federal forces in the last part of the civil war, and who had gained a military reputation second to that of no commander of modern times; who had also been lifted to the highest position in the gift of a grateful people, and had served eight years in the White House as our chief executive, was reported to be in his last illness.

The sympathy of the entire country was profoundly stirred by this announcement. Medical skill of the highest order was summoned; daily bulletins of the condition of the illustrious patient were issued; hope was expressed that his life might be spared for many years, a hope which soon



U. S. CRUISER COLUMBIA.



U. S. CRUISER NEWARK.

proved to be unfounded; and although his labors in the preparation of his "Memoirs" continued, it became evident that he was sustained more by will-power than by any increasing strength, and that very soon he would be compelled to lay down his pen as he had already laid down his sword.

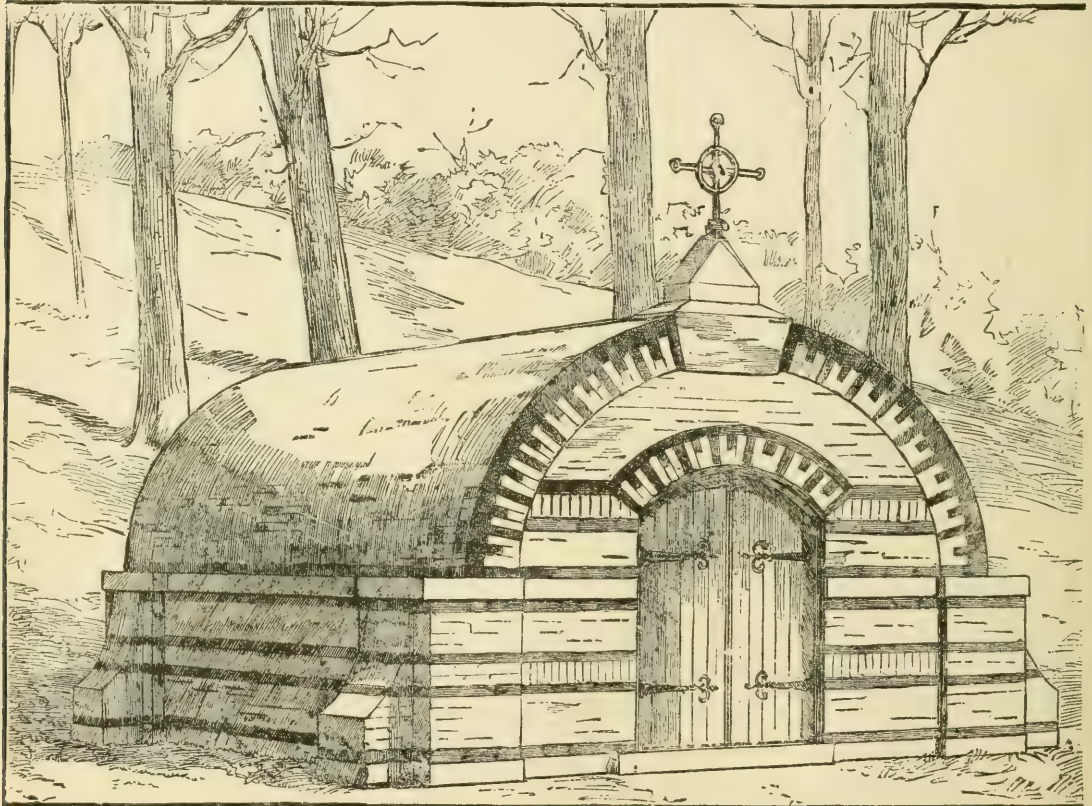


DEATH OF GENERAL GRANT.

In the summer of 1885 he was removed to Mount McGregor, in the northern part of the State of New York, in the hope that he would be invigorated by the mountain air. Disease, however, had progressed so far that his death became inevitable, and this occurred on the 23d of July, at eight o'clock A. M. Demonstrations of sorrow attended his obsequies. A special train bore his remains from Mount McGregor to the city of New York, where the funeral services and the interment were to take place. On the 6th of August he was laid in state in the City Hall, and vast crowds of people came to take their last look. On August 8th the funeral took place, which was an extraordinary pageantry. It was attended by celebrities from all parts of the land. All that statesmen, members of Con-

gress, Governors of States, Judges of Supreme Courts and persons in the highest walks of professional and mercantile life could do to give honor to the illustrious dead was rendered on this occasion.

The Grand Army, of which General Grant had been the leader, was fully represented. A procession numbering from fifty to sixty thousand men followed the hearse from the City Hall to the mausoleum erected on



GENERAL GRANT'S TEMPORARY TOMB, RIVERSIDE PARK, NEW YORK.

the banks of the Hudson, which was to contain the remains of the illustrious dead. The closing scenes of the life of General Grant were as impressive as his previous illness had been painful, and fitted to awaken public sympathy. Thus was laid in the tomb another of the renowned sons of the Republic who had done much to add to her fame and brighten her glory.

It was not long after this that another death occurred which added to the affliction caused by that of ex-President Grant. On the 29th of October General George B. McClellan died at his residence at Orange Mountain,

N. J. General McClellan's name comes out conspicuously in the history of our country since 1860. In the early part of the war he was commander of the Army of the Potomac. Having been displaced, the part that he occupied in the war was not afterward prominent. He was widely known, however, in political life, and was invested with several offices, one of which was the governorship of New Jersey. His funeral took place in the city of New York on the 2d of November.

In December both houses of Congress passed a bill granting a pension to President Grant's widow. This was thought to be an act of justice in consideration of the services rendered to the nation by her distinguished husband—a measure which was heartily approved by the people at large, and which was another evidence of the fact that, notwithstanding the old saying that "Republics are ungrateful," ours is not to be so classed.

Evils Threatening the Country.

In the early part of December, Congress reassembled at Washington, and President Cleveland submitted his annual message. In this message the matter of silver coinage was given a prominent place, and in connection with it the existing condition of the laboring classes throughout the country was discussed. The President expressed the gravest anxiety for the prosperity of the country, unless measures should be taken by Congress to remedy the existing evils. Another important recommendation had reference to the Indians. It was maintained that the present laws and regulations for their control should be prudently administered, while at the same time it was stated that there was a lack of fixed purpose or policy on this subject.

The President took the ground that the Indians were within the care of the government, and their rights should be protected from invasion by the most solemn obligations. It was stated that there was a general concurrence in the proposition that the ultimate object of their treatment should be their civilization and citizenship, and it was urged that measures to this end should be pressed forward as speedily as possible. The passage of a law was recommended which should authorize the appointment of six commissioners to carry out the preceding recommendations. These were the most important matters which were submitted by President Cleveland in his message.

Agitations upon the labor question continued throughout the country;

organizations were rapidly formed, conventions were held, leading agitators inflamed the laboring classes, and the subject assumed such grave proportions that on the 22d of April, 1886, President Cleveland sent a special message to Congress. The object was to recommend such measures as would tend to quiet the labor agitation, and at the same time guard the interests of capital.

The next event of importance, although occurring in Chicago, very soon assumed a national aspect. On the 4th of May a riot occurred in that city, instigated by a company of revolutionary spirits, who have been denominated "Anarchists." After having held secret and public meetings for a long time, which were promoted and reported by one or two journals edited by the leaders in the movement, an open outbreak occurred on the above date. While a public meeting was being held, and speeches were being made of a revolutionary description, the police attempted to disperse the crowd. At that instant dynamite bombs were thrown, and seven policemen were killed, and eighty-three officers and citizens were wounded.

Execution of Anarchists at Chicago.

A number of arrests followed, and on the 20th of August, after a protracted trial, seven anarchists were convicted of murder, and sentenced to be executed. Able counsel defended them, and managed their trial in such a way as to indicate that they were as much in sympathy with the measures proposed by the anarchists, as they were with the maintenance of law and order. On the 7th of October a new trial was refused, and on the 9th formal sentence of execution was pronounced. Four were executed on November 11, 1887, one committed suicide in prison, two were sentenced to imprisonment for life, and one to fifteen years in the penitentiary.

On the 31st of August, 1886, the city of Charleston, South Carolina, was visited by a severe earthquake. Nearly seven thousand buildings were totally destroyed, or seriously injured. About one hundred lives were lost, and so great was the work of destruction that more than one-half of the city had to be rebuilt. This calamity threw a gloom over the entire country; prompt aid was offered the sufferers, and the people of the stricken city began at once to repair their desolated homes.

On Thursday, October 28, 1886, the great statue of Liberty Enlightening the World was unveiled on Bedloe's Island, in New York Harbor. This massive work was conceived and executed by M. Auguste F. Bar-

tholdi, of Paris, France, and was presented by the French nation to the people of the United States. The first steps towards its construction were taken in 1874, when the French-American Union was established, a banquet given, and an appeal made to the people of France. In 1876 M. Bartholdi had begun his great work, and with extended right arm of the statue—the first part that was completed—came to America, and placed it, with the torch, in the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia, whence it was subsequently removed to Madison Square, New York. In February, 1877, Congress set apart Bedloe's Island for the statue, and a committee was chosen, with William M. Evarts at its head, to make preparations for receiving the great work.

Description of the Statue.

The statue weighs 450,000 pounds, or 225 tons. The bronze alone weighs 200,000 pounds. Forty persons can stand comfortably in the head, and the torch will hold twelve people.

The total number of steps in the temporary staircase, which leads from the base of the foundation to the top of the torch is 403 feet. From the ground to the top of the pedestal, 195 steps. The number of steps in the statue from the pedestal to the head is 154, and the ladder leading up through the extended right arm to the torch has 54 rounds. The cost of the statue was estimated at \$250,000; the cost of the pedestal and the erection of the statue, \$350,000. Total cost of the work completed and in place, \$600,000.

In September, of 1887, the centennial anniversary of the adoption and promulgation of the United States Constitution was celebrated in Philadelphia. The celebration occupied the three days—Thursday, Friday and Saturday, September 15th, 16th and 17th. On the 15th there was a grand industrial display under the general direction of Colonel A. Loudon Snowden, which was seven hours in passing a given point, and was by far the largest exhibition of the sort ever made in America.

On Friday, the 16th, there was a military parade, composed of United States regular troops, United States marines, Girard College cadets, and companies of State militia from over half the States in the Union. Fifteen thousand men were in line, the governors of States riding at the head of their several State troops, the whole under the command of Lieutenant-General Philip H. Sheridan. It was reviewed by the President of the United

States. Stands had been erected along Broad street from Wharton to Dauphin streets, and on Market and Chestnut streets from Broad to Fifth streets, and they were filled with tier upon tier of enthusiastic thousands, the whole forming one of the grandest military spectacles of the century.

On Saturday there were public exercises in Independence Square, at which President Cleveland presided, the opening and closing prayers being made by Bishop Potter, of New York, and Cardinal Gibbons, of Baltimore, respectively. There were addresses by President Cleveland and

President Kasson, of the Constitutional Celebration Committee, and the oration was given by Associate Justice Samuel F. Miller, of the United States Supreme Court.

At St. Louis, June 5th, 1888, the Democratic National Convention was held for the purpose of nominating candidates for the offices of President and Vice-President. President Grover Cleveland, of New York, was unanimously nominated for the office of President of the United States, and Allen G. Thurman, of Ohio, for the office of Vice-President; after which the convention adjourned on June 7th. The meet-



LEVI P. MORTON.

ings of the convention were attended by scenes of excitement and enthusiasm, which indicated complete harmony in the Democratic party, resolute determination to make the approaching campaign one of great vigor, and hope of success at the general election to be held in November.

The Republican National Convention, held at Chicago from the 19th to the 25th of June, 1888, nominated the Hon. Benjamin Harrison, of Indiana, for the office of President.

Previous to the assembling of the convention, and even during its early sessions, Mr. Harrison was not so prominently named for the nomination as several others. Sherman, of Ohio; Gresham, of Illinois; Alger, of Michigan, and that distinguished leader of the Republican party, James G. Blaine, had their respective enthusiastic following. The nomination

was given to Mr. Harrison after a long and patient effort to secure the best man for the high honor of leading the Republican hosts.

When the convention, on the eighth ballot, declared in favor of Harrison, the decision was hailed with universal delight. Although the friends of other candidates had worked with great zeal to secure the prize for their favorites, there was a hearty acquiescence in the final decision, the choice was made unanimous, the building shook with hearty plaudits, great waves of excitement swept over the vast audience, and the scene was one never to be forgotten by those who witnessed it. At once all differences among the delegates were harmonized, and they prepared to push the canvass with vigor up to the day of decision in November. Hon. Levi P. Morton, of New York, was nominated for the office of Vice-President.

On the sixth of November the election was held, which resulted in a victory for the Republican party, the States voting as they did at the election four years before, with the exception of New York and Indiana which gave their votes to Benjamin Harrison.

CHAPTER XXXV.

ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT HARRISON.

THERE was an imposing demonstration at Washington on the occasion of President Harrison's inauguration, March 4, 1889. A vast concourse of people assembled from all parts of the country, and the civic and military display surpassed all pageant-tries ever before witnessed at the capital.

President Harrison's inaugural address, while recommending some important measures, was regarded as conservative in its tone, and served to inspire confidence in the new administration. The address traced the neces-

sary growth of tariff legislation. This legislation was adopted in the early history of the nation.

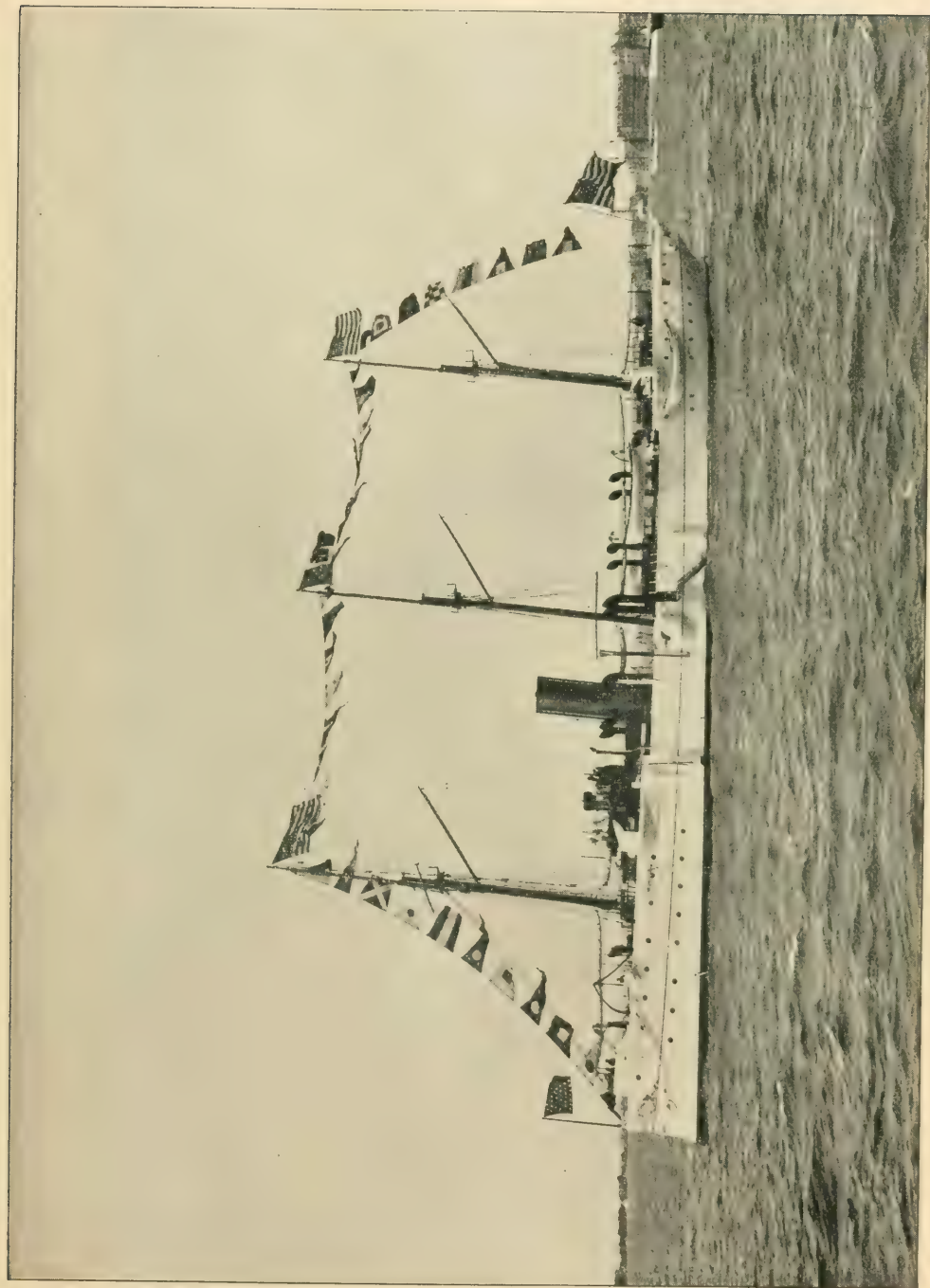
"Societies for the promotion of home manufactures and for encouraging the use of domestic in the dress of the people were organized in many of the States. The revival at the end of the century of the same patriotic interest in the preservation and development of domestic industries, and the defence of our working people against injurious foreign competition, is an incident worthy of atten-



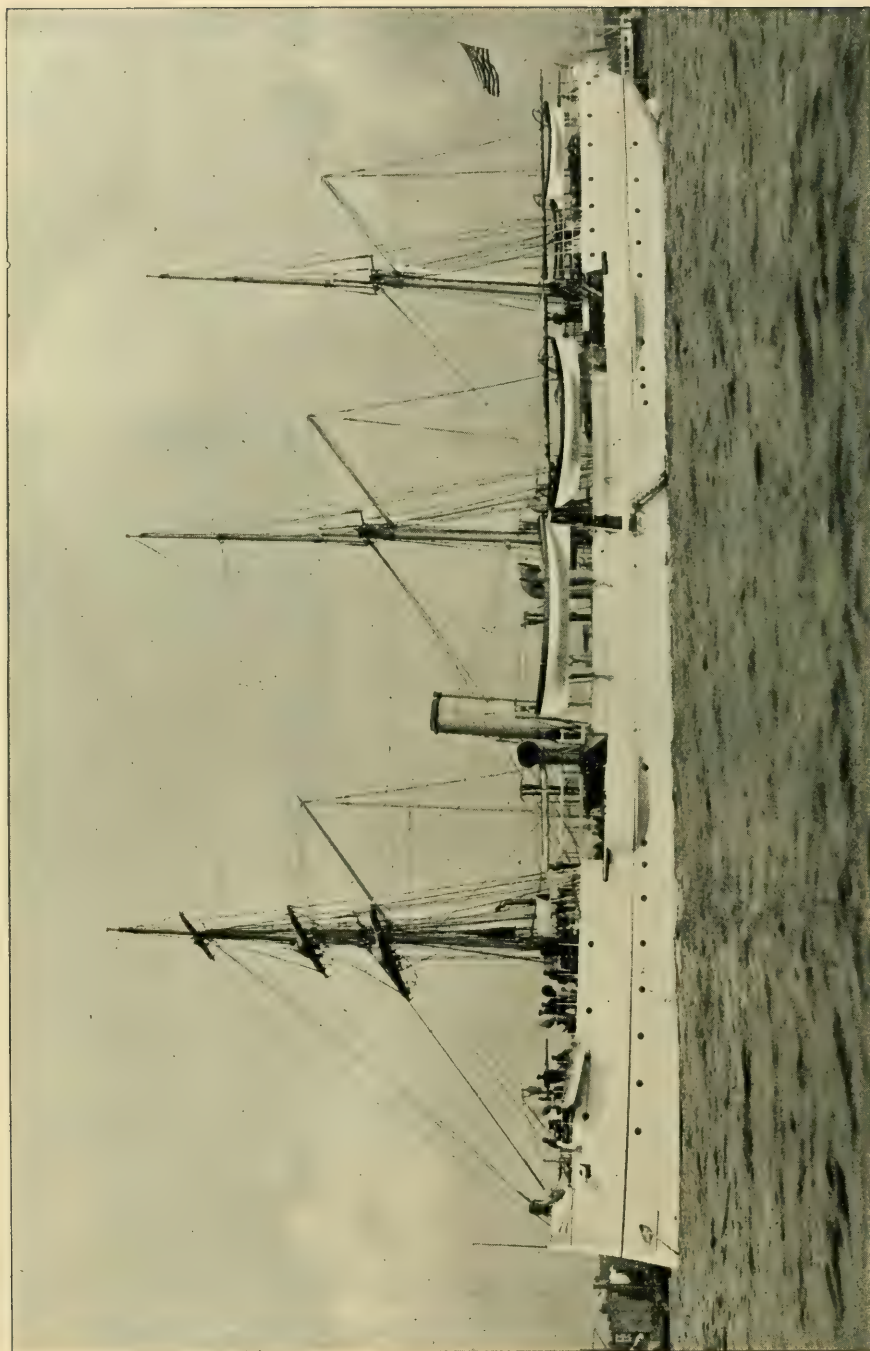
BENJAMIN HARRISON.

tion. It is not a departure, but a return that we have witnessed. The protective policy had then its opponents. The argument was made, as now, that its benefits inured to particular classes or sections."

Continuing, the President said: "I look hopefully to the continuance of our protective system and to the consequent development of manufac-



U. S. CRUISER YORKTOWN.



U. S. CRUISER PETREL.

turing and mining enterprises in the States hitherto wholly given to agriculture, as a potent influence in the perfect unification of our people. 'The men who have invested their capital in these enterprises, the farmers who have felt the benefit of their neighborhood, and the men who work in shop or field will not fail to find and to defend a community of interest.'

Evils Attending Trusts.

The President gave some timely suggestions respecting the formation of trusts and the evils which are likely to attend them. Among other things he said: "The evil example of permitting individuals, corporations or communities to nullify the laws because they cross some selfish or local interest or prejudice is full of danger, not only to the nation at large, but much more to those who use this pernicious expedient to escape their just obligations or to obtain an unjust advantage over others. They will presently themselves be compelled to appeal to the law for protection and those who would use the law as a defence must not deny that use of it to others.

"If our great corporations would more scrupulously observe their legal limitations and duties they would have less cause to complain of the unlawful limitations of their rights or of violent interference with their operations. The community that by concert, open or secret, among its citizens denies to a portion of its members their plain rights under the law, has severed the only safe bond of social order and prosperity. The evil works, from a bad centre, both ways. It demoralizes those who practice it, and destroys the faith of those who suffer by it in the efficiency of the law as a safe protector. The man in whose breast that faith has been darkened is naturally the subject of dangerous uncanny suggestions. Those who use unlawful methods, if moved by no higher motive than the selfishness that prompted them, may well stop to inquire what is to be the end of this."

The President also recommended that our naturalization laws be so amended as to exclude the worst class of immigrants. "We should not cease to be hospitable to immigration, but we should cease to be careless as to the character of it."

The address recommended that care be exercised to maintain friendly relations with the other nations of the globe, but not at the expense of our own interests.

A strong navy for the protection of the United States was urged as a prime consideration, with such appropriations as would be needed to build

and equip a fleet of war vessels capable of defending our coasts and upholding the dignity of our flag.

The reform of the civil service, the admission of new States, the freedom of the ballot, and the safeguards needed to give efficiency to our election laws, were topics discussed by the address in a timely, patriotic manner.

On the advent of summer, June 1st, the country was horror-stricken by the announcement that a terrible calamity had overtaken the inhabitants of Johnstown, Pennsylvania, and the neighboring villages on the preceding day. Instantly the whole land was stirred by the startling news of this great disaster. Its appalling magnitude, its dreadful suddenness, its scenes of terror and agony, the fate of thousands swept to instant death by a flood as frightful as that of the cataract of Niagara, awakened the profoundest horror. No calamity in the history of modern times so appalled the entire civilized world.

The Appalling Calamity at Johnstown.

The South Forks dam, situated a few miles above the city of Johnstown, suddenly gave way, precipitating an immense body of water into the valley below. The impetuous torrent swept downward with frightful velocity, overturning trees, carrying with it barns, houses, fences and vast accumulations of debris. People fled in terror to save their lives, but were overtaken by the rushing torrent. The destruction to life and property was appalling.

The greatest damage occurred at Johnstown, a large part of the dwellings being swept away, transforming a flourishing manufacturing town of twelve thousand persons into a scene of utter desolation. The story of this great disaster is replete with thrilling incidents, narrow escapes from death, the rending asunder of families, the loss of husbands, wives and children, and in many instances the obliteration of entire households. It was estimated that upwards of four thousand persons perished. Profound sympathy throughout the world was awakened for the surviving sufferers, and immense sums of money and contributions of clothing were sent to the scene of the disaster.

One of the most important measures enacted during President Harrison's administration was the McKinley tariff bill. After a lengthy discussion the bill was passed by a party vote, the Republican party being pledged to the principle of protection. The act went into effect October 1, 1890, and in its practical workings was closely watched and universally discussed.

A remarkable political revolution swept over the country in the autumn of 1890, which was considered largely due to the enactment of the McKinley tariff bill. In the Fifty-first Congress the House of Representatives contained one hundred and seventy-six Republicans and one hundred and fifty-five Democrats. In the Fifty-second Congress there were eighty-eight Republicans and two hundred and thirty-five Democrats.

In the autumn of 1890 troubles broke out afresh at the Indian agencies. The several tribes were seized with a peculiar craze, and began to perform the "ghost dance," which was supposed to indicate their belief in a coming Messiah who was about to appear.

Peculiar Belief of the Indians.

It seems impossible to trace the exact origin of the Indian faith. An Indian from the upper Columbia river, named Smohalla, preached the doctrine of an Indian Messiah about the year 1880. This Indian taught that there would be an upheaval of nature, which would destroy the white man and restore to the Indian his ancestral remains, and that the dust of countless dead Indians would spring to life, and would surround without one word of warning each pale face, who would be swept from the face of the earth. None of the deadly weapons of civilization or skill in their use would avail, and the blood of eighty millions of whites would atone for the wrongs done to the red race.

Within a few months the belief in this new religion spread from tribe to tribe with marvellous rapidity. Runners traversed thousands of miles to reach distant tribes and bear the glad tidings. The Arrapahoes, the Shoshones, the great Sioux tribes, the Cheyennes, both north and south, and many other tribes, were taught the faith; and the "ghost-dance," the religious ceremony of the creed, was danced by all these tribes.

Possessed by these superstitious notions, these extraordinary beliefs, the powerful tribe of Sioux began and continued to perform their fantastic ghost-dances. Sitting-Bull, the old deadly foe of the white men, took advantage of the craze to inflame the anger of his people, and prepare for deeds of blood.

The disquietude among the Sioux Indians resulting from Sitting-Bull's prophecy that a new Messiah was soon to appear to restore to the Indians the land taken from them by the pale-faces, and to bring back the buffalo, assumed such proportions that, on the 14th of November, the Interior

Department transferred the control of the Indians of North Dakota, under orders of the President, to the War Department, and General Miles, commanding the Department of the Missouri, was placed in control.



SITTING-BULL, IN HIS WAR-DRESS.

friend of the United States. He was so regarded for years, and was always inclined to be peaceable and loyal. To nothing but the turbulent, hostile

Troops were ordered to be sent forward, and it was expected that within a very short time there would be 3,000 regulars massed in North Dakota. Sitting-Bull had about 3,000 warriors, and it was the intention of the War Department to overawe the Indians by bringing an equal force of United States soldiers against them.

The Indian hostility to those of their number who were friendly to the United States Government showed itself in the attempted assassination of American Horse. This Indian was a prominent Sioux chief, and a

and disaffected spirit of the Indians can be attributed the attempt to murder him. They were seemingly angry because American Horse opposed the turbulent spirit manifested by the Indians.

On the 7th of December some of the hostile chiefs from the Bad Lands appeared at the Pine Ridge agency to hold a conference with General Brooke. They came bearing a flag of truce and armed with Winchester and Springfield rifles. The entrance of the novel procession created great excitement. First came the chiefs, who were Turning Bear, Big Turkey, High Pine, Big Bad Horse and Bull Dog, who was one of the leaders in the Custer massacre. Next came Two Strike, the head chief, seated in a buggy with Father Jule, a priest who induced the chiefs to take this step. Surrounding these was a body-guard of four young warriors.

Great Pow-Wow.

All the Indians were decorated with war-paint and feathers, while many wore ghost-dance leggings and the ghost-dance shirt dangling at their saddles. The war-like cavalcade proceeded at once to General Brooke's spacious headquarters in the agency residence. At a given signal all leaped to the ground, hitched their ponies, and, guided by Father Jule, entered the general's apartments, where the council was held, lasting about two hours.

At the beginning of the pow-wow, General Brooke explained that the Great Father, through him, asked them to come in and have a talk regarding the situation. A great deal of misunderstanding and trouble had arisen by the reports taken to and fro between the camps by irresponsible parties, and it was, therefore, considered very necessary that they have a talk face to face. Through him, he said, the Great Father wanted to tell them if they would come in near the agency, where he (General Brooke) could see them often, and not be compelled to depend on hearsay, that he would give them plenty to eat, and would employ many of their young men as scouts, etc.

The soldiers did not come there to fight, but to protect the settlers, and keep peace. He hoped they, the Indians, were all in favor of peace, as the Great Father did not want war. As to the feeling over the change in the boundary line between Pine Ridge and Rosebud Agency, he said that and many other things would be settled satisfactorily, after they had shown a disposition to come in, as asked by the Great Father. Wounded

Knee was suggested as a place that would prove satisfactory to the Great Father to have them live.

The representatives of the hostiles listened with contracted brows, sidelong glances at one another and low grunts. When the general had concluded his remarks, Turning Bear came forward, and spoke in reply. He proved a most entertaining person. Simmered down to a few words, Turning Bear gave expression to the following ideas:

Shrewd Objections to the Plan.

It would be a bad thing for them to come nearer the agency, because there was no water or grass for their horses here. He could not understand how their young men could be employed as scouts, if there was no enemy to be watched. They would be glad to be employed, and get paid for it. They might come in, but, as the old men and old women have no horses, and as their people have nothing generally to pull their wagons, it would take them a long time to come. If they should come they would want the Great Father to send horses and wagons to the Bad Lands camp, and bring in great quantities of beef, etc., they had there, and take it anywhere to a new camp that might be agreed on. In conclusion, the speaker hoped that they would be given something to eat before they started back.

To this the general replied that they should be given food. As for horses and wagons being sent after the beef, the general said that and other things would be considered, after they had acceded to the Great Father's request to move into the agency. Any reference whatever to the wholesale devastation and depredation, thieving and burning of buildings, etc., was studiously avoided on both sides. After the pow-wow was over, the band was conducted to the quarter-master's department, and there given a big feast. The squaws living at the agency came out in gala-day feathers, and gave a squaw-dance. The conference amounted to nothing, and the trouble was no nearer a settlement than before.

The next news received was of a startling character. It was known that General Miles considered Sitting-Bull the chief instigator of the hostilities on the part of the Indians, yet no public notice had been given of his intention to have the crafty old warrior arrested. The Indian police, however, employed on the Pine Ridge reservation, were ordered to make the arrest. The chief was taken, and, in the melee which followed an

attempt to rescue him, he was shot, together with his son and six braves, while four of his captors were slain.

The following is a detailed account of the engagement: On the morning of December 15th, 1890, there was a desperate fight at the camp of the hostile Indians, forty miles northwest of Standing-Rock Agency, and before it could be quelled Sitting Bull, his son, Crow Foot, and six other Indians were killed, besides four of the Indian police, while quite a number on both sides were wounded. The fight was the result of an attempt to arrest Sitting Bull in order to prevent his departure for the Bad Lands.

Sharp Battle with the Red-skins.

The Indian police were ordered early in the morning to proceed to the camp and arrest the wily old chief, who it was known had arranged to make an early start for the Bad Lands, where he would be almost absolutely safe from arrest. The police were followed by a troop of cavalry in command of Captain Fechet and a company of infantry under Colonel Drum. When the police reached Sitting Bull's camp on the Grand River, they found arrangements being made for the departure of the band, and without waiting for the soldiers to come up, at once placed the old chief under arrest and started back with him to the agency.

Scarcely had the officers gotten under way when the friends of the old Indian rallied to his rescue. They announced their determination to retake him, and a terrible fight ensued. The police were surrounded, and, though greatly outnumbered, they fought like demons and succeeded in holding their own against the redskins until the cavalry, attracted by the firing, came up on a quick run and succeeded in compelling the Indians either to fly or surrender.

The fighting was of the hand-to-hand description, and is said to have been exceedingly savage. One of the Indian police jumped on Sitting Bull's horse as soon as he saw the old man fall and rode back for the infantry, which arrived on the scene shortly after the cavalry had relieved the overmatched police. Then the Indians began to break away, and probably one hundred of the braves deserted their families and fled west, up the Grand river.

When the smoke of the battle had cleared away it was found that Sitting Bull was dead, as also was his son, Crow Foot, and six braves. Four of the policemen, whose names could not be learned, were also dead, and

three of them badly wounded. A number of the Indians were badly injured, but managed to escape on their ponies. Captain Wallace, commanding Troop K, of the Seventh Cavalry, was killed, and Lieutenant Garlington of the same regiment was shot in the arm. After the death of Sitting Bull his warriors saw the hopelessness of continuing the strife and surrendered on the 22d of December, to the United States troops.

On the 7th of June, 1892, the Republican Convention met at Minneapolis. The nomination of President Harrison had been considered a foregone conclusion up to June 4th, when the country was startled by the news that Secretary Blaine had resigned from President Harrison's Cabinet. A letter written by Mr. Blaine in the preceding February announced that under no consideration would he consent to be a candidate for the Presidency. This letter was very generally accepted in good faith, and there was a general conviction that Mr. Blaine was entirely out of the race.

Mr. Blaine's Unexpected Action.

It was known, however, that for some time before the Convention assembled, persistent efforts had been made by enemies of the administration to induce Mr. Blaine to reconsider his letter of February, and allow his name to be used at Minneapolis; and when he suddenly resigned from the Cabinet by a curt letter, and his resignation was accepted by President Harrison in a letter equally brief and barren of all complimentary expressions, it was commonly believed that the "Plumed Knight" had decided to seek the nomination.

There was consequently great excitement preceding the organization of the Convention and during its progress. It became evident at once that there would be a hard contest between the two leading candidates. The States at their Conventions had strongly indorsed the administration of President Harrison, and many of the delegates had been instructed to vote for his renomination in the National Convention. His friends, after they recovered from the first shock which followed the announcement of Mr. Blaine's resignation, rallied bravely, and remained firm to the end.

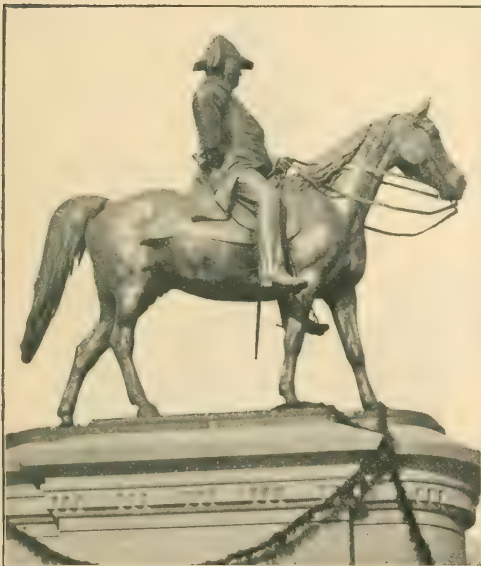
Minneapolis was the scene of animated discussions and unique popular demonstrations. The loud huzzahs for Blaine showed that he had a strong hold upon the popular heart; but the thoughtful mass of delegates who were to decide the question remained true to the President, and worked diligently and wisely to secure his nomination.



LAFAYETTE MEMORIAL.



GENERAL ANDREW JACKSON.



GENERAL WINFIELD SCOTT.



LINCOLN EMANCIPATION STATUE.

MONUMENTS AT WASHINGTON, D. C.



GARFIELD MEMORIAL.



GENERAL GEORGE H. THOMAS.



ADMIRAL DAVID G. FARRAGUT.



REAR ADMIRAL DUPONT.

MONUMENTS AT WASHINGTON, D. C.

The brilliant eloquence of Chauncey M. Depew, of New York, awakened an unparalleled scene of enthusiasm as he placed Mr. Harrison in nomination before the Convention. Mr. Blaine was nominated by Senator Wolcott, of Colorado. Mr. Harrison was chosen by the Convention as the nominee of the Republican party for the presidency.

The National Democratic Convention of 1892 was held in Chicago, June 21st to June 23d. It was conceded before the convention assembled that ex-President Cleveland would again receive the nomination for the Presidency, which prediction received verification on the first ballot.

The national election on November 8th resulted in the success of the Democratic party by a large majority. The official returns showed that Cleveland and Stevenson obtained two hundred and seventy-eight electors, or fifty-five more than a majority of the Electoral College.

Death in High Places.


The death of Hon. James G. Blaine occurred at his residence in Washington on January 27, 1893. From 1862 he served fourteen years in Congress as Representative from Maine, and during the last three terms he was Speaker of the House. In the Republican nominations for the Presidency in 1876 and 1880 he was defeated by Hayes and Garfield. Appointed United States Senator in 1876 he served till 1881, and acted as Secretary of State under Garfield, but resigned after Garfield's assassination. He was the Republican candidate for the Presidency in 1884, but was defeated by Cleveland. On the 4th of March, 1888, he received the portfolio of Secretary of State in President Harrison's Cabinet.

In the long and intricate controversy with Great Britain respecting the Behring Sea fisheries, Mr. Blaine vigorously maintained the rights of the United States and showed himself a master of diplomacy. By his speeches and writings he was known as an advocate of protection to American industries, and he made this one of the leading issues in the presidential campaign of 1884.

To his ability as a statesman was added the charm of varied accomplishments, a commanding personal appearance, great controversial power, and those eminent gifts which distinguish the persuasive orator and successful leader. Always intensely American in his convictions and sympathies, his conduct of the State Department at Washington, aimed to maintain our national prerogatives, and to extend our influence.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND'S SECOND TERM.

N THE 4th of March, 1893, Grover Cleveland entered for the second time upon his duties as President of the United States. The ceremonies of inauguration drew visitors to Washington from all parts of the country, and were of the usual imposing character.

Congress was called together in extraordinary session August 7th, and received a message from President Cleveland. The main object of the message was to recommend the immediate repeal of what was known as the Sherman law, relating to the purchase of silver by the government for coinage. The session was preceded by a period of great financial depression, the closing of many manufacturing establishments and a general disturbance of the industrial and business interests of the country. A bill for the repeal of the obnoxious law was introduced into the House of Representatives by Hon. William L. Wilson, of West Virginia, and after brief discussion was promptly passed by a large majority, August 28th.

The bill then went to the Senate, where a protracted struggle ensued, attended at times by bitter personalities, and by "filibustering" on the part of the minority, thereby preventing the majority from declaring its expressed will. At length the bill passed the Senate, October 30th, by a vote of forty-three to thirty-two.

The second session of the Fifty-third Congress began on the first Monday of December, 1893. The most important business was the passage of the Tariff bill. The new Tariff bill derived its name from Mr. Wilson, Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee.

Preliminary work was begun upon the bill by the Ways and Means Committee of the House in October, 1893, during the extra session called by the President for the repeal of the Sherman Silver act. It was reported to the House on December 19, and on January 8, 1894, it began to be discussed in that body. It passed the House February 1, by a vote of two hundred and four to one hundred and forty, having been modified in only one

important feature—sugar being made free of duty. On the 2d of February it was reported to the Senate and at once referred to the Finance Committee.

Promptly on receiving the Wilson bill, the Finance Committee gave over its task to a sub-committee, consisting of Mills, Jones and Vest, who completed a bill on tariff-reform lines, making a few changes in the Wilson bill. This was reported to the full committee on February 26th. Thereupon, Mr. Gorman called together the Democratic caucus to instruct the sub-committee to go to work again, and reconstruct the bill so that it would suit the Protectionist Democratic Senators.

Important Alterations in the Tariff Bill.

The sub-committee made a new bill, "amending" the Wilson bill in several hundred particulars, and altering its character in a protectionist sense. It was reported to the Senate on March 20th, but was still unsatisfactory. On May 5th, Mr. Gorman called another caucus to secure unanimity, after which, on May 8th, some four hundred new amendments were reported.

"The Senate bill" had assumed its final form. On July 3d it passed the Senate, and on the 7th—the House rejecting the 634 Senate amendments in gross—consideration of points of disagreement between the two Houses was begun in the conference committee. The Senate conferees presented an ultimatum—"the Senate bill as it is or no tariff legislation."

The House conferees demanded free raw materials, and no protection for sugar, but in vain. On July 19th, Mr. Wilson reported the continued disagreement to the House, at the same time making public the President's letter insisting on free raw materials. In the Senate, Mr. Gorman replied in a defiant speech, full of personal flings.

After a week of sensations, Senator Hill's proposal to recede from the amendments putting a duty on ore and coal was voted down, and the bill sent back to conference. After some further dickering by the "compromisers," and an attempt on the part of Mr. Hill to kill the bill in the Senate, the House became alarmed at the supposed prospect of failure of all tariff legislation, and on August 13th passed the Senate bill. On the same day the House passed four bills, putting sugar, coal, ore and barbed wire on the free list, but they were not acted on by the Senate.

The President neither signed nor vetoed the Tariff bill, and it became a law without his signature, taking effect August 28, 1894.

Early in 1891 active preparations were commenced for the appropriate celebration of the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by Columbus. As the centennial anniversary of American independence in 1876 had been commemorated by an International Exposition at Philadelphia, in which nearly all the civilized nations of the earth participated, it was resolved to celebrate the discovery of the New World by an exhibition of grander proportions, as the only suitable method of giving dignity to the great occasion. The whole country became interested in the project, and it was advocated with unanimity by the newspaper press.

A hot rivalry at once sprang up between a number of cities, each of which was eager to obtain the honor of furnishing a site for the World's Fair. The friendly strife finally narrowed itself down to New York and Chicago, but the difficulty of obtaining a convenient site for the exhibition operated strongly as a barrier against the former city.

Site for the World's Fair.

The act of Congress, which definitely selected Chicago as the city in which the Exposition should be held, and which fixed the dates of the celebration to be held in 1892, and the formal opening and closing of the Exposition in 1893, was approved by the President of the United States, April 25, 1890. Jackson Park, where the Exposition buildings were located, is beautifully situated on Lake Michigan, having a lake frontage of two miles, and embraces 586 acres.

The ground was prepared for a system of lagoons and canals from 100 to 300 feet wide, which, with the broad, grassy terraces leading down to them, passed the principal buildings, enclosed a wooded island 1,800 feet long, and formed a circuit of three miles, navigable by pleasure boats.

These canals, which were crossed by many bridges, connected with the lake at two points: one at the southern limit of the improved portion of the park, and the other more than half a mile farther south, at the great main court of the Exposition. At this point, extending eastward into the lake 1,200 feet, were piers which afforded a landing-place for the lake steamers, and enclosed a harbor for the picturesque little pleasure boats of all epochs and all nations.

This harbor was bounded on the east, far out in the lake, by the long columned facade of the Casino, in whose free spaces crowds of men and

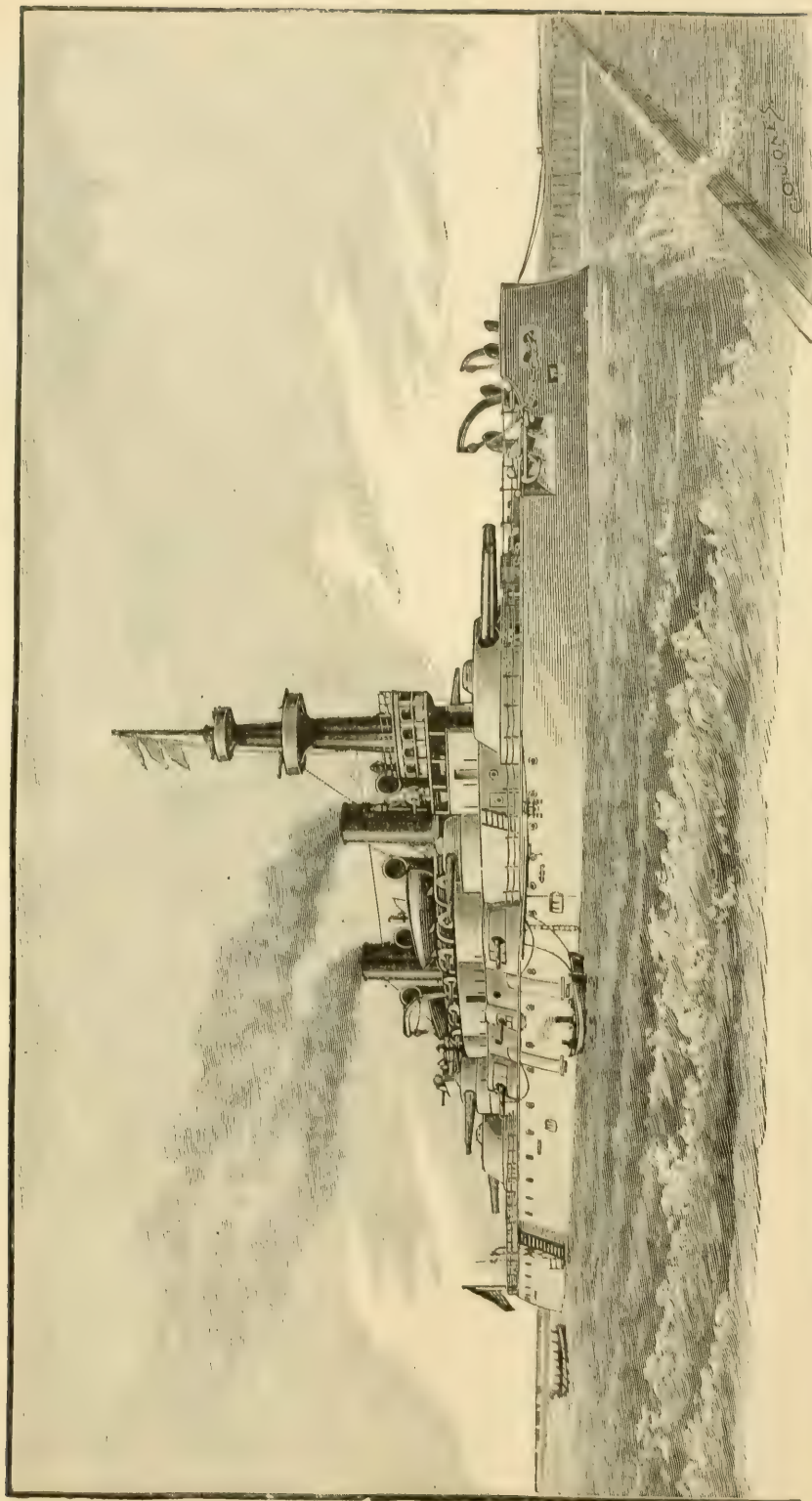
women, protected by its ceiling of gay ownings, looked east to the lake and west to the long vista between the main edifices as far as the gilded dome of the Administration Building. The first notable object in this vista was the colossal statue of Liberty rising out of the lagoon at the point where it enters the land, protected by moles, which carried sculptured columns emblematic of the thirteen original States of our Union. Beyond this, beyond the first of many bridges, was a broad basin from which grassy terraces and broad walks led, on the north, to the south elevation of the Main Building, and on the south to the Agricultural Building.

The Dedication Ceremonies.

The grounds and buildings were so nearly ready that the dedication ceremonies were held in October, 1892. The celebration in New York extended over several days, ending on the 12th of October, and consisted of a magnificent military and naval parade. Vast numbers of people flocked to the metropolis from surrounding towns, and even distant localities, and participated in the festivities. The greatest celebration, however, was in Chicago, occupying several days, and attended by multitudes of people. Vice-President Morton was present, also the governors of a number of the States, together with distinguished persons from all parts of the country, including President Harrison's Cabinet, army and navy officers, and members of Congress.

On Monday, the 1st day of May, 1893, in the presence of 300,000 people, Grover Cleveland, President of the United States, surrounded by the members of his Cabinet, by a distinguished representation from lands across the seas, and a mighty throng of American citizens, pressed the electric button which set in motion the miles of shafting, the innumerable engines and machines, and the labyrinth of belting and gearing which made up the machinery of the World's Columbian Exposition. At the same moment a National salute pealed forth from the gun, the "Andrew Johnson," lying off the Exposition grounds, in Lake Michigan; 700 flags released from their "stops" at a concerted signal swung loose, and streamed out under the sky in scarlet, yellow and blue.

Over in Machinery Hall a great roar arose, and the turrets of the building shook as the wheels began to turn, and a greater volume of sound arose from the throats of a concourse of people who thus acclaimed the opening of the grandest achievement of American pluck, enterprise and generosity.



UNITED STATES EXHIBIT BATTLE-SHIP "ILLINOIS," AT THE COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.

From the center of the platform proper there radiated a special stand, and upon this were chairs for President Cleveland, Vice-President Stevenson, the Duke of Veragua and his party, and the higher National and local officers of the Fair. Immediately in the rear were the sections assigned to the members of the Diplomatic Corps, while to their right and left the guests of the occasion were arranged; behind these were placed the orchestra. In front of all, occupying the two wings on the right and left of the speakers' stands, was provision for some 300 representatives of the press, who represented nearly every civilized nation on the face of the globe.

Prayer was offered by Rev. W. H. Milburn, D. D., Chaplain of the United States Senate, after which a poem, written by Mr. W. A. Croffutt, was read. Then followed addresses by the Hon. George R. Davis, Director-General of the Exposition, and President Cleveland.

Opening of the Great Exposition.

As the President was concluding the final sentence of his address his eyes wandered to the table that was close at his left hand. Upon this was the button, the pressure upon which was to start the machinery and make the opening of the Exposition an accomplished fact. It was an ordinary form of Victor telegraph key, such as in use in most telegraph offices, except that it was of gold instead of steel, and a button of ivory instead of rubber. It rested upon a pedestal upholstered in navy blue and golden yellow plush, and on the sides of the lower tier, in silver letters, were the significant dates, 1492 and 1893. As the last words fell from the President's lips he pressed his finger upon the button.

This was the signal for a demonstration difficult of imagination, and infinitely more so of description. At one and the same instant the audience burst into a thundering shout; the orchestra pealed for the strains of the Hallelujah Chorus; the wheels of the great Ellis engine in Machinery Hall commenced to revolve; the electric fountains in the lagoon threw their torrents towards the sky; a flood of water gushed from the McMonnies Fountain and rolled back again into the basin; the thunder of artillery came from the vessels in the lake; the chimes in Manufacturers' Hall and on the German Building rang out a merry peal, and, overhead, the flags at the tops of the poles in front of the platform fell apart and revealed two gilded models of the ships in which Columbus first sailed to American shores.

At the same moment also hundreds of flags of all nations and all colors were unfurled within sight of the platform. The largest was a great "Old Glory," which fell into graceful folds from the top of the centre staff in front of the stand. The roof of the Manufacturers' Building was gorgeous in red gonfalons, while the Agricultural Building was dressed in ensigns of orange and white. It was a wonderful scene of transformation, and amid it all cannon continued to thunder and the crowd to cheer. It was fully ten minutes before the demonstration subsided. Then the band played "America" and the exercises were at an end. The Columbian Exposition was open to the nations of the world. It was precisely the hour of noon when President Cleveland touched the button and thus declared the opening an accomplished fact.

The Last Day of the Fair.

The official time for closing the Fair was October 30th. Six months before it was opened with splendid pageantry, and a thousand bright new banners were unfurled, while a hundred thousand spectators cheered. On the closing day the weather-stained banners were pulled down almost in silence. Those that represented foreign countries were not raised again. Only the American flag floated afterwards over the buildings. A public meeting was held at 4.30 in Festival Hall. Several addresses were delivered and resolutions were passed, but there was no ceremony by Exposition officials. At 5 o'clock there was a little puff of smoke from the United States steamer "Michigan," which lay at anchor off the grounds. Twenty more peals followed.

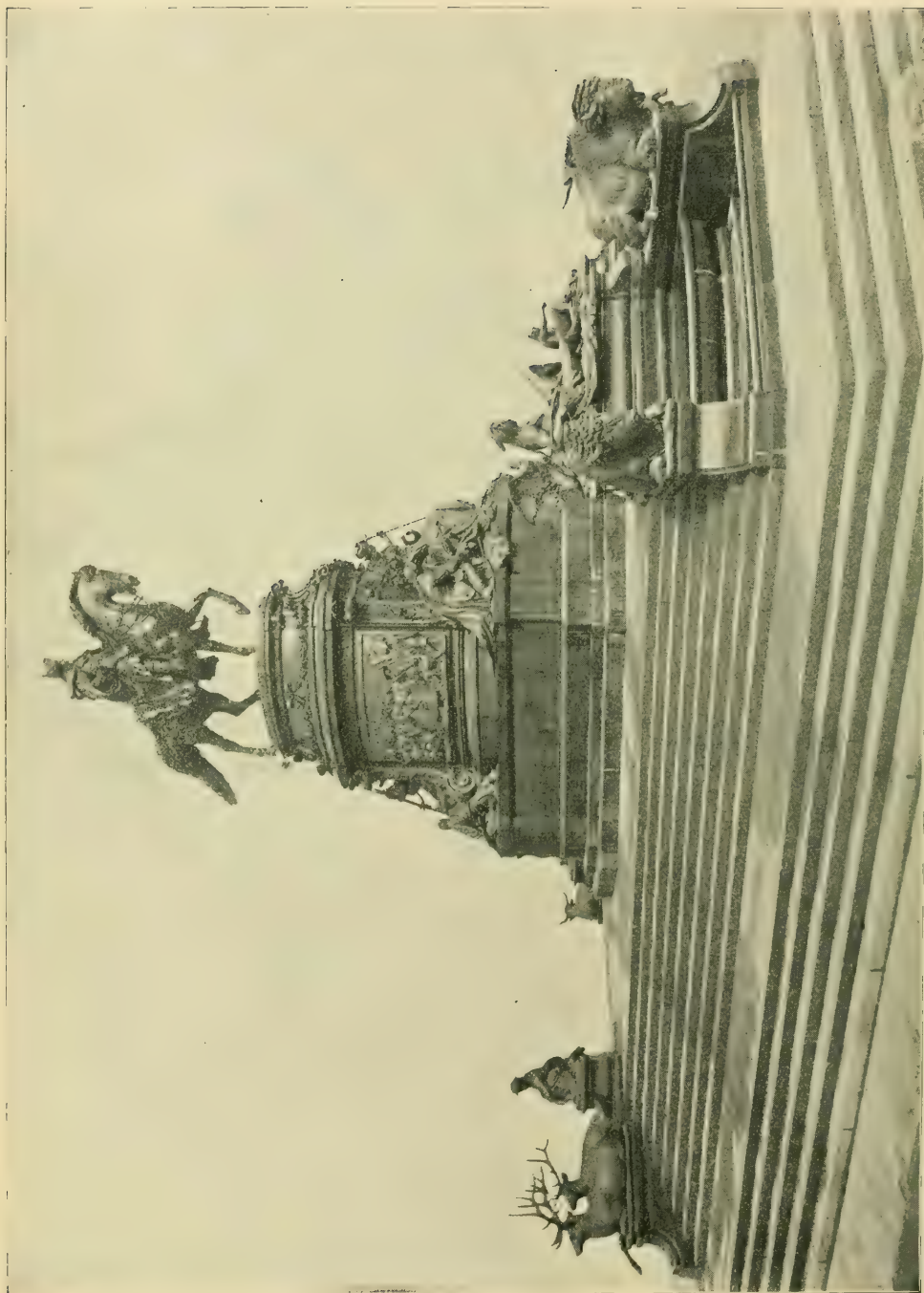
All the flags had been at half-mast; but when the twenty-first gun was fired they were pulled simultaneously to the flagstaff's peak, and, after fluttering there for a moment, as if in farewell, they went down for the last time, and the official announcement was made that the World's Columbian Exposition as an international affair was at an end. Taps were sounded, and the Innes Band played "The Star-spangled Banner." This was a spontaneous demonstration, and for the first time the people cheered.

The following are the official figures for the paid admissions to the Fair: May, 1,050,037; June, 2,675,113; July, 2,760,263; August, 3,515,493; September, 4,659,871; October, 6,816,435; making 21,477,212. The total admissions on passes were 2,052,188, making a grand total of 23,529,400.

After every debt of the World's Fair was paid there remained \$1,000,000



THOMAS A. EDISON



WASHINGTON MONUMENT, FAIRMOUNT PARK, PHILADELPHIA, UNVEILED BY PRESIDENT MCKINLEY,
MAY 15, 1897.

to be distributed among the stockholders. The treasurer made this pleasant announcement on the closing day. The Exposition Company paid out \$30,558,849.01, or three times the amount the managers expected to spend when they commenced building the Fair. The gate receipts during the Exposition period proper were a little over \$10,000,000. Up to the last day \$3,300,000 had been collected from concessionaries. The returns from those who held concession privileges was one of the big surprises of the Fair. Nobody was reckless enough to predict that that sum would be realized. The Paris Exposition received but \$80,000 from that source, while in 1876 the Centennial Exposition managers received \$1,200,000.

The events during Mr. Cleveland's second term of office included two issues of bonds to maintain the gold reserve. Another issue was provided for and the subscription was opened in New York, February 20, 1895. Subscriptions for \$60,000,000 were made in a few minutes.

On April 8, 1895, the United States Supreme Court delivered a decision respecting the Income Tax law, which declared that the Federal Government had no authority to collect a tax on incomes derived from State, county and municipal bonds.

A message sent to Congress by President Cleveland concerning the dispute between Great Britain and Venezuela, regarding the boundary line between Venezuela and British Guinea, awakened great interest throughout the country, and led to the formation of a commission for investigation.

Bids for \$100,000,000 of four per cent. bonds were opened at the Treasury Department, Thursday, February 6, 1896. There were nearly 4700 distinct offers, aggregating nearly \$700,000,000. This was very substantial testimony to the confidence reposed by the people at large in the financial stability of our Government.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

INAUGURATION OF PRESIDENT McKINLEY.

IN the beginning of 1896 a remarkable interest was shown by the press and the people throughout the country in the pending Presidential campaign. There was a stir in the nation like that in the forest which precedes the coming storm. Radical differences of opinion existed upon the monetary question, and it was evident that these would find expression in the national conventions which were soon to be held. On the one hand the majority of the Republican



WILLIAM McKINLEY.

party were prepared to maintain the gold standard. As time advanced it became evident that a large part of the Democratic party had adopted the cause of free silver, although President Cleveland, Secretary Carlisle, and many other influential party leaders were opposed to the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1. The wave of discussion rose higher and higher and the country was filled with clamor. Among all classes of citizens national questions were largely discussed, and the heat and fervor of the pending campaign were

such as had not been witnessed since the days of the Civil War.

The eleventh Republican National Convention met at St. Louis on June 16th, and nominated as the candidates of the Republican party Hon. Wm. McKinley, of Ohio, for President, and Hon. Garret A. Hobart, of New Jersey for Vice-President. The Convention was an unusually harmonious one,

choosing its platform without debate, excepting for the protests of the advocates of a plank for the free coinage of silver, who were voted down by a large majority.

Twenty-one silver advocates under the lead of Senator Teller, of Colorado, thereupon "bolted" from the Convention, and severed their allegiance from the Republican party. The scene in the Convention was impressive when Senator Teller, under deep emotion, made a farewell address to the representatives of the party of which he had so long been a conspicuous member, and, followed by twenty of the delegates, left the hall.

Nomination of McKinley and Hobart.

Both Mr. McKinley and Mr. Hobart were nominated on the first ballot long before the roll call of the States was finished, and the enthusiasm for McKinley was intense. For some time before the holding of the Convention, it was plain that Mr. McKinley would be the choice of the Republicans, the rising tide in his favor engulfing all opposition. He was nominated amidst the acclamations of the vast majority of his party.

The platform pledged renewed allegiance to the principle of protection; declared in favor of the gold standard; demanded reciprocity; reasserted the Monroe doctrine; expressed sympathy for suffering Cuba; demanded that the immigration laws be rigidly enforced; renewed the party's declarations in favor of civil service; insisted upon the right of trial by jury for criminals, in opposition to lynchings, and recommended arbitration for the settlement of the differences which may arise between employers and employed engaged in interstate commerce. The nominations and the platform were favorably received, and were at once heartily ratified by public meetings, and the formation of political clubs.

The Democratic National Convention met at Chicago on July 8th, and nominated for President, Hon. William J. Bryan, of Nebraska, and for Vice-President, Hon. Arthur Sewall, of Maine. The remarkable feature of the Convention was the strength of the supporters of free coinage of silver, who constituted over two-thirds of the delegates, and represented chiefly Southern and Western States. This turn in the Convention was quite unexpected to many, and suddenly revealed a strong sentiment in favor of free silver in many parts of the country. Mr. Bryan's nomination was largely due to a speech he made in the Convention, which received the hearty applause of many of the delegates.

The silver question thus became the prime issue of the national campaign, and large contingents from both the old parties abandoned former political ties, and enrolled themselves on the one side or the other of the monetary question. The populous Eastern States were the strongholds of the gold standard of currency, and scarcely a doubt was entertained that the movement looking towards free coinage of silver by the United States without waiting for an international agreement could not prevail. The success of the silver advocates in the Democratic Convention, however, gave the cause of the white metal a great impetus, and roused the people of the nation to study the currency question with more earnestness and thought than they had ever done before. A campaign of education was carried on, in which the arguments for and against free coinage of silver were widely circulated and discussed.

The Country Divided on the Silver Question.

The Democratic platform denounced the gold standard; opposed the issue of bonds in time of peace; declared in favor of an income tax and tariff for revenue only; recommended that the Federal government have more control over railroads; denounced the arbitrary interference by Federal authorities in local affairs, and expressed opposition to a third term.

The divided state of public sentiment on the silver question appeared strikingly in the Convention of the Prohibition party, which was held in Pittsburg, May 2d. A large number of delegates were present, representing all parts of the country. The silver question was thrust into the deliberations of the Convention, and created great excitement. Many of the delegates wanted Prohibition, without any other issue; many others wanted Prohibition and free silver. The Convention was rent in twain; the seceders met and formed a new party, and the outcome was a complete disruption of that very considerable body of citizens who consider legislation on the Temperance question the first duty of the nation.

Hon. Joshua Levering, of Maryland, was nominated by the Prohibitionists for President, and Hon. Hale Johnson, of Illinois, for Vice-President. The National party nominated Hon. Joseph E. Bentley, of Nebraska for President, and Hon. J. H. Southgate, of North Carolina, for Vice-President. Neither of these parties acted any conspicuous part in the campaign, as the financial question overshadowed all others, affecting, as it did, every individual in the nation.

A number of influential Democrats expressed a strong opposition to the action of the Democratic Convention at Chicago, and resolved that some movement should be inaugurated to save the party, if possible, from being entirely captured by the advocates of free silver. The sound-money delegates in the convention, under the leadership of Senator Hill, of New York, entered a strong protest against the rule of the majority. This, however, was without avail, and during the latter part of the convention those who favored the gold standard took no part in the proceedings.

Convention of Old-line Democrats.

It was felt by many of the old-line Democrats that something should be done to preserve the party name and its time-honored principles. A call was issued for a convention to be held at Indianapolis, September 2d. The delegates were among the most influential and conservative of the Democratic party, and were thoroughly in earnest. A platform was adopted, denouncing free-silver coinage, and advocating the gold standard. Strong denunciations were hurled at the Populistic notions and ideas so prevalent in many of the States. The first paragraph of the platform was as follows:

"This convention has assembled to uphold the principles upon which depend the honor and welfare of the American people, in order that Democrats throughout the Union may unite their patriotic efforts to avert disaster to their country and ruin from their party. The Democratic party is pledged to equal and exact justice to all men of every creed and condition; to the largest freedom of the individual consistent with good government; to the preservation of the Federal Government in its Constitutional vigor, and to the support of the States in all their just rights; to economy in public expenditures, to the maintenance of the public credit and sound money, and it is opposed to paternalism and to all class legislation. The declarations of the Chicago Convention attack individual freedom, the right of private contract, the independence of the judiciary and the authority of the President to enforce Federal laws."

Hon. John M. Palmer, of Illinois, was nominated for President, and Hon. Simon B. Buckner, of Kentucky, for Vice-President. They made an active canvass through the country, but failed to unite the Democratic forces to any great extent, as it was conceded from the outset that there was no possibility of their election.

The campaign throughout was one of unexampled activity, the eminent

leaders of all parties entering the contest with great spirit. All the influences and resources of the press and of men in public life were brought to bear upon the great issues involved, which, it was admitted by all, affected the integrity of the nation, if not its very existence.

Result of the Election.

In the election of November, Mr. McKinley received 7,101,401 of the popular vote; Mr. Bryan, 6,470,656; Mr. Palmer, 132,056, and Mr. Levering, 130,560. Of the Electoral College, Mr. McKinley received 271 votes, and Mr. Bryan 176.

On the 4th of March, 1897, Mr. McKinley was inaugurated President with imposing ceremonies, and Mr. Hobart was inducted into the office of Vice-President. A multitude of people from all parts of the country assembled in Washington, and nothing occurred to mar the success of the inauguration. Mr. McKinley entered upon the duties of his office with the best wishes, not only of his party, but of all classes of his fellow-countrymen. His cabinet was constituted as follows: Secretary of State, John Sherman, of Ohio; Secretary of the Treasury, Lyman J. Gage, of Illinois; Secretary of War, Russell A. Alger, of Michigan; Attorney-General, Joseph McKenna, of California; Postmaster-General, James A. Gary, of Maryland; Secretary of the Navy, John D. Long, of Massachusetts; Secretary of the Interior, Cornelius N. Bliss, of New York; Secretary of Agriculture, James Wilson, of Iowa.

Mr. McKinley immediately called an extra session of Congress, which assembled on March 15th, for the express purpose of revising the tariff, providing a revenue sufficient for the wants of the Government, and placing the finances of the nation upon a sound basis. Hon. Thomas B. Reed, of Maine, was re-elected Speaker of the House.

President McKinley sent a message to Congress, in which he said: "Regretting the necessity which has required me to call you together, I feel that your assembling in extraordinary session is indispensable because of the condition in which we find the revenues of the government. It is conceded that its current expenditures are greater than its receipts, and that such a condition has existed for now more than three years. With unlimited means at our command, we are presenting the remarkable spectacle of increasing our public debt by borrowing money to meet the ordinary outlays incident upon even an economical and prudent administration of the

government. An examination of the subject discloses this fact in every detail and leads inevitably to the conclusion that the condition of the revenue which allows it is unjustifiable, and should be corrected.

"Congress should promptly correct the existing condition. Ample revenues must be supplied not only for the ordinary expenses of the government, but for the prompt payment of liberal pensions and the liquidation of the principal and interest of the public debts. In raising revenue duties should be so levied upon foreign products as to preserve the home market, so far as possible, to our own producers; to revive and increase manufactories; to relieve and encourage agriculture; to increase our domestic and foreign commerce; to aid and develop mining and building, and to render to labor in every field of useful occupation the liberal wages and adequate rewards to which skill and industry are justly entitled.

"The necessity of the passage of a tariff law which shall provide ample revenue need not be further urged. The imperative demand of the hour is the prompt enactment of such a measure, and to this object I earnestly recommend that Congress shall make every endeavor. Before other business is transacted let us first provide sufficient revenue to faithfully administer the government without the contracting of further debt, or the continued disturbance of our finances."

Enactment of a New Tariff Bill.

Congress entered at once upon the discussion of the Dingley tariff bill, which had been in preparation for several months by the Ways and Means Committee. The most important provisions of the bill related to the duties on wool, sugar, tobacco and liquors. The bill had a double object, namely, to provide sufficient revenue for the current expenses of the government; and, in addition to this, to protect our American industries from the disastrous effects of foreign competition, which was possible mainly through the cheap labor system of Europe. The disposition of the American people was friendly to a wise and conservative revision of the tariff laws.

In the House of Representatives the Tariff Bill made rapid progress. There was a disposition on the part of all the members to act promptly upon the measure, and relieve the country of suspense. It was universally felt that uncertainty regarding the Tariff was a fruitful source of business depression, and should be removed at the earliest possible moment.

When the Tariff Bill had been passed by the House it was sent to

the Senate. Here there was more delay, and longer time was required for discussing some of the main features of the bill. Several members, also, had pet projects which they wished to enact into law, and embodied these in the form of amendments to the bill; but so great was the pressure of public opinion, and so great the necessity of speedy legislation, that the measure passed the Senate in much less time than any similar measure had ever done before. Both Houses of Congress finally agreed, and the new Tariff Bill was passed on the 24th of July, 1897, and was signed by President McKinley on the same day.

The President immediately sent a message to Congress, recommending the appointment of a Commission to consider the currency question, and ascertain what changes, if any, should be made. The House was disposed to consider the President's recommendation at once, but the Senate immediately adjourned without taking any action. The disposition of the President to do all he could to place the finances of the Government on a sound basis, and allay the agitation arising from the discussion of the silver question, was shown by the appointment of a Commission to confer with the Governments of Europe with a view to an agreement respecting the coinage of silver.

The Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria occurring in June awakened interest throughout the country. Our Government was represented on this occasion by Hon. Whitelaw Reid, who was appointed as special ambassador to convey the greetings and congratulations of the United States to the Queen of Great Britain and Ireland.

Upon the enactment of the Tariff Bill there were many signs throughout the country of returning prosperity, and the great centres of trade felt the impulse of new life. Simultaneously came reports of satisfactory crops throughout all the agricultural districts, and it was felt that the serious business depression which had lasted for several years had come to an end.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

ALASKA AND ITS GOLD-FIELDS.

THE north-west coast of America was discovered and explored by a Russian expedition under Bering in 1741; and, at subsequent periods, settlements were made by the Russians at various places, chiefly for the prosecution of the fur trade. In 1799, the territory was granted to a Russo-American fur company by the Emperor, Paul VIII., and in 1839 the charter of the company was renewed. New Archangel, in the island of Sitka, was the principal settlement, but the company had about forty stations. They exported annually 25,000 skins of the seal, sea-otter, beaver, etc., besides about 20,000 sea-horse teeth.

The privileges of the company expired in 1863, and in 1867 the whole Russian possessions in America were ceded to the United States, for a money payment of \$7,200,000. The treaty was signed on the 30th of March, and ratified on the 20th of June, 1867; and on the 9th of October, following, the possession of the country was formally made over to a military force of the United States at New Archangel. It still remains in the military keeping of the United States, under a territorial governor. It has, however, been constituted a revenue district, with Sitka as the port of entry.

Since Alaska was ceded to the United States, considerable information has been collected as to the resources of the less sterile parts of the country; but the central and northern parts of this region are only known as the inhospitable home of some wandering tribes of Indians and Esquimaux. Portions of Alaska have also been recently explored by the employees of the Russo-American Telegraph Company, in surveying a route for a line of telegraph, which was designed to cross from America to Asia, near Bering Strait—a project which was abandoned, after an expenditure of \$3,000,000, on communication with Europe having been secured by the Atlantic cable.

The climate of the south-western coast of Alaska is tolerably mild, considering its high latitude. The great warm current of the Pacific,

sweeping in a north-easterly circuit from the East Indies Islands, and corresponding very much in character and effects to the Gulf Stream of the Atlantic, washes its shores; and, while it modifies the temperature, also causes an excessive rainfall. At Sitka the mean temperature is $42^{\circ} 9'$, and the average rainfall about eighty inches.



Alaska will never have any great agricultural value. From the great amount of rain, and the want of heat, cereals grow, but will not ripen, and vegetables do not thrive. Native grasses and berries grow plentifully, but the chief wealth of the country is in its vast forests, in the furs of its wild animals, in the fish with which its rivers and seas abound, and in its rich deposits of gold. The forests, rising from the coast, and covering the mountains to a height of 2,000 feet, consist of a very durable yellow cedar,

spruce, larch, and fir of great size, and also cypress and hemlock. The wild animals include the elk, the deer, and various species of bear, and also many fur-bearing animals, such as the wolf and fox, the beaver, ermine, martin, otter and squirrel.

Near the coast and islands, there are innumerable fur-bearing seals which are caught in great numbers by the settlers; but, from the rigor of the climate, and the arduous nature of the work, the trapping of the animals of the interior is left to the Indians. The salmon abounds in the rivers, and there are great banks along the shores, the favorite haunt of cod and other fish. Coal and iron are among the most important minerals, but the value of the deposits remains to be ascertained.

In 1896 and 1897, the reports concerning discoveries of rich deposits of gold in the northern part of Alaska created much interest throughout the country, and a large number of persons set out for the gold-fields, in the hope of securing a sudden fortune.

Immense Territory of Alaska.

Alaska has an area of 580,107 square miles. It is therefore about one-fifth the size of the United States, or nearly equal to the combined areas of the New England, Middle and Southern States east of the Mississippi River. Of the interior of this vast area we are practically ignorant. Three or four reconnoissances have been made by officers of the army through portions of the territory, and the courses of several of its great navigable rivers have thus been determined. These expeditions, however, were inadequately prepared for the work of exploration; the journeys were necessarily made in very great haste, and were confined to the rivers. No systematic exploration of the interior has ever been attempted by the government, and the topography, resources and capabilities of Alaska are practically unknown.

The Eskimo (or Innuít) inhabit the coast line west of the 141st meridian, excepting the northern part of Cook's Inlet, that portion of the Alaskan peninsula west of the 157th meridian, and the Shumagin and Aleutian groups of islands. Recent investigators believe that their migration to Alaska occurred at the time of general tribal migration resulting in the settlement on Greenland. This opinion is strengthened by the fact that all the Eskimo tribes, whether on the Alaskan coast, the eastern coast or in Greenland, use the same kind of skin-covered canoes.

The Aleuts inhabit the northern coast of the Alaskan peninsula, from Cape Stroganof westward, and its southern coast from Pavlof Bay westward, the Shumagin Islands, and the whole group known as the Aleutian chain, extending from the Shumagins in the east to the island of Attou in the west. As to their origin there are various opinions. Some believe they have a common origin with the people of Kamtchatka; others, however, urge that they could not have migrated from Asia, owing to lack of facilities, and must have descended from the earliest nations of America.

They are divided into two tribes, Oonalashkans and Atkhas, speaking different dialects. They wear ornaments in the nose and upper lip. Their weapons consist of barbed darts, lances, spears, harpoons and arrows. They also carry a sharp stone knife, ten or twelve inches long. Their household utensils are made of stone, wood and bone, mats and baskets neatly woven of grass and tree-roots, bone needles, thread and cord of sinews, etc. They are very hospitable, and fond of dancing and pantomimics.

Curious Traditions among the Natives.

The Aleuts have a tradition that in olden times the climate of their country was clearer and warmer, and the winds moderate; that their forefathers came from their original dwelling-place in the west—a great land called *Aliashka*, or Continent; that in that early country peace and prosperity prevailed; but that in the progress of time dissensions arose, resulting in war, separation and divergent emigration. They also say that in their old country there was a very great flood sent upon the people, because of their disregard of sacred customs. An able and learned Russian priest (Veniaminof) says:

“The Aleuts consider as their relatives the Kenaitze, Chugarch, Yakutats and Kolosh; but the Kolosh do not acknowledge this. In substantiation of their claim the Aleuts say that one prominent individual, the father of a numerous family, was from necessity compelled to leave his village on Oonalashka; in one summer he collected all his family and relatives, and departed to the northern side of the *Aliashka*, with the intention to travel and to search for a better and richer country.

“He landed at first at one of the Aglemute villages; but the Aglemutes looked upon them as enemies, and in a general attack put them to flight. Finding it inconvenient or impossible to settle near the seacoast, the Aleuts proceeded to the headwaters of some large river, and, having

selected a convenient spot, settled down for good. Their descendants made peace with the natives of the country and increased; but with their increase came a greater change in their former customs, appearing principally in the greater inclination to war and hunt.

"After the lapse of considerable time a quarrel ensued between the descendants of the original Oonalashkans and the creoles or half-breeds, finally resulting in a war. Their village was situated on both sides of the stream, one-half opposite the other. They had adopted the habit, for the sake of accustoming themselves to war, of making sham attacks, one upon the other, shooting spears and arrows without points; but during one of these sham attacks some one placed a head upon his arrow, and hit an enemy in the eye. The attack was at once changed from sham to reality; but as the creoles outnumbered the Oonalashkans the latter were defeated and compelled to move farther eastward, and passed from river to river, finally emerging upon the shores of the gulf of Kenai, where they finally settled down.

"The present Kenaitze are their descendants. The creoles left behind rapidly increased, and divisions of them moved to the northeastward, and finally became the founders of the Chugarchs, Yakutats and Kolosh."

Remains of Ancient Dwellings.

In their traditions the Aleuts maintain that in former times the sea-shore along the whole group of islands was more deeply indented. In some localities this is even yet perceptible. The grandfathers of the present Aleuts in their youth heard from their grandfathers that they found on elevated spots, and often far distant from the sea, signs of former dwellings, such as whale-ribs and large logs of drift-wood.

Between these places and the shore-line they also found small pebbles tied with whalebone fiber, such as are now used for sinkers, fish-lines and nets. From these indications the Aleuts came to the conclusion that at one time these elevated positions, showing the remains of dwelling-places, were on the sea-shore, and over the places where the sinkers were found the sea once extended. But all this was subsequent to the flood.

With regard to the volcanoes the Aleuts believe that in olden times all the "fire mountains" on Oonalashka and Ounimak islands quarreled among themselves as to which had the largest body of fire within, and after a prolonged dispute, in which not one would yield to the others, they

concluded to settle the dispute by a trial of strength. Immediately a terrible conflict ensued, lasting for many days, the mountains throwing fire and rocks at each other. The smaller peaks could not withstand the larger ones, and recognizing their weakness, bowed down and went out forever.

Fables Concerning Volcanoes.

The conflict continued until but two craters remained, one on Oonashka—Makushin (Ayak), and the other on Cunimak—Recheshnaia (Ismak). These, having vanquished all the others, engaged in a single-handed conflict, with the most disastrous consequences to their surroundings. Fire, rock and ashes were thrown in such quantities that all animals inhabiting the neighborhood perished, and the air became heavy. The Ounimak crater finally could not keep up with its rival, and, seeing destruction impending, gathered all its strength, jumped up with a bound and collapsed. The Makushin volcano, being victor and but little injured, and seeing no more enemies around him, gradually calmed down, and now only smokes occasionally.

Sitka is the capital of Alaska, but Juneau, although but ten years old, is to-day the largest town. It is situated about 80 miles northeast of the capital, opposite Douglas Island, at the foot of a range of sheltering mountains, which rise abruptly two thousand feet from the end of every street. These streets seem to follow the gulches or ravines. At present Juneau is simply a mining camp, founded in 1880 by Joseph Juneau and Richard Harris; but it is destined to become the most important commercial point upon the entire coast. This is owing to the proximity of the precious metal, the "Silver Bow Basin" gold placer mines lying immediately back of the town, while in front, but three miles away, on Douglas Island, is the famous Treadwell mine. It is believed several other good "claims" exist in the immediate neighborhood which have not yet been developed.

The town contains a number of shops, where a system of barter is carried on between the Indian hunter and the white trader. Upon arriving in town with the skins the red man visits every shop and trader before he parts with his goods, and finally disposes of his skins to the highest bidder. He receives in payment a number of blue or red tickets, which are taken by the storekeeper in exchange for such commodities as he may require to carry back to his Innuut home.

All native villages on the Alaskan coast are built directly on the beach, not only because the Indians look to the sea for a living, but to make homes inland means such labor of felling trees and clearing the ground as only the white race undertakes. In the genuine Alaskan lodge there is no window, but one door, and no second story. In the center of the floor on the ground is a fire-place, around which, at a distance of several feet, runs a continuous platform, which constitutes the sleeping apartments. Occasionally the room is divided by curtains.

The ground beneath the platform constitutes kitchen and reception-room. The head of the house sits opposite the door, his family and friends on either side, while slaves, if there be any, sit with their backs to the door. In front of many of the houses stand one or more large poles, carved from top to bottom, generally representing bears, whales, eagles, ravens or wolves. These are the genealogical trees of the natives, of which they are very proud, and tell the family history.

Alaska's Traffic in Furs.

The chief industry of Alaska is the seal-fur trade, which is described elsewhere. In addition to this there is considerable traffic in sea-otter, land-otter, and other furs, and in fish, and a small production of minerals and timber. Notwithstanding efforts made by the United States government for the preservation of the fur-bearing animals in Alaska, the supply (excepting the fur-seals which are adequately protected) is continually decreasing, and may ultimately become extinct.

On the other hand, the fisheries of Alaska are annually increasing in importance, and are destined to become the staple industry of the future. The catch of salmon is already assuming large proportions, and the number of canneries is rapidly increasing. The largest fishing-port is at Killisnoo, and at this port alone 300,000 gallons of herring oil are shipped annually. The large shipments of dog-fish oil and whale oil form no inconsiderable part of the commerce of the country.

In minerals, there is on Douglas Island a mountain of gold-ore, but of low grade. The cost of securing the ore is, however, very small. There is no descending into the bowels of the earth with hydraulic machines. The miners chip away in broad daylight, with ore enough in sight to last a score or more of years, and within a stone's throw of the mountain is the mill which receives and reduces the ore. The summit and part of one

side of the mountain have already been eaten up. The present annual production is nearly \$1,000,000.

The only important breeding grounds of the fur-seals at present are the Pribyloff (or Pribylov) Islands, lying in the heart of Bering Sea, about 192 miles north of Oonalashka, 200 miles south of Matthews, and about 200 miles westward of Cape Newenham, on the main land. Two of these islands, St. George and St. Paul, by reason of their temperature, surface, and facilities for landing, are specially adapted for the perfect life and reproduction of these valuable fur-bearing animals. They are located in the Japan Ocean current, and hence the normal temperature is much warmer than that of the surrounding seas.

These islands are also so enveloped by dense fogs as to furnish a comparatively secure hiding-place for the seals. St. Paul is about 13 miles long and 6 miles in its greatest width. It has a superficial area of 21,120 acres, with a shore line of 42 miles, over 16 of which are adapted for the passage of the seals. St. George is about 10 miles long, and over 4 miles in width, and contains about 27 square miles.

Islands Populated with Seals.

During the short summer the fur-seals seek these islands in immense numbers to rest for two or three months on land, on a hard, smooth surface, with a cooling, moist atmosphere, which they must have during their breeding season. They find here the admirably adapted grounds of basaltic rock, and of volcanic cement, slopes of gradual ascent from the sea furnishing a quiet resting-place for millions of this intelligent species.

The islands of St. Paul and St. George in Alaska are the only known breeding-grounds of the fur-seal. From early spring until late autumn fur-seals are found in all that part of the North Pacific inclosed by the Alaska coast from latitude 54 deg. 40 min. to Mount St. Elias, and thence westward along Prince William Sound to the east side of Kenai peninsula, and along the Alaska peninsula, and its continuation, the Aleutian chain of islands. In Bering Sea the fur-seal has not been seen north of latitude 58 deg. In the spring only are they found in large numbers in the vicinity of the Straits of Fuca, and along the coast of Vancouver and Queen Charlotte Islands.

During the general migration to and from the breeding-grounds several of the passes through the Aleutian chain are crowded with adults in the

spring, and young seals in the autumn. After leaving their breeding-grounds they scatter over the broad Pacific to localities where elevated submarine plateaus furnish them with abundant feeding-grounds (of fish), until the instinct of reproduction calls them from all directions to the islands named above.

The sea-otter seems to make its home chiefly on a line parallel with the Japanese current, from the coast of Japan along the Kurile Island to the coast of Kamtchatka, and thence westward along the Aleutian chain, the southern side of the Alaskan peninsula, the estuaries of Cook's Inlet and Prince William's Sound, and thence eastward along the Alaskan coast, the Alexander Archipelago, British Columbia, and the States of Washington and Oregon. Sea-otters are most abundant from the island of Ounimak northeasterly along the Alaskan peninsula.

Valuable Fur-bearing Animals.

The land-otter is one of the most widely distributed of fur-bearing animals, ranking in this respect next to the common fox. The skin, however, is much more valuable, and is used in the manufacture of an imitation seal-skin. In Alaska the land-otter is found on the whole coast from the southern boundary to the northern shore of Norton Sound, also on most of the islands, and along the whole coast of the Yukon as far as known.

The beaver, the brown bear, the mink, the cross, blue, and white fox, the marten, and a few other fur-bearing animals are also found in many parts of Alaska, and some of them widely distributed and in immense numbers of the several districts.

And now a general word about the Yukon river and its tributaries. What the Amazon is to South America, the Mississippi to the central portion of the United States, the Yukon is to Alaska. It is a great inland highway, which will make it possible for the explorer to penetrate the mysterious fastnesses of that still unknown region. The Yukon has its source in the Rocky Mountains of British Columbia, and the Coast Range Mountains in South-eastern Alaska, about 125 miles from the city of Juneau, which is the present metropolis of Alaska.

But it is only known as the Yukon river at the point where the Pelly river, the branch that heads in British Columbia, meets with the Lewis river, which heads in South-eastern Alaska. This point of confluence is at Fort Selkirk, in the Northwest Territory, about 125 miles south-east

of the Klondike. The Yukon proper is 2,044 miles in length. From Fort Selkirk it flows north-west 400 miles, just touching the Arctic circle; thence southward for a distance of 1,600 miles, where it empties into Bering Sea. It drains more than 600,000 square miles of territory, and discharges one-third more water into Bering Sea than does the Mississippi into the Gulf of Mexico. At its mouth it is sixty miles wide. About 1,500 miles inland it widens out from one to ten miles.

A thousand islands send the channel in as many different directions. Only natives, who are thoroughly familiar with the river, are entrusted with the piloting of boats up the stream during the season of low water. Even at the season of high water, it is still so shallow as not to be navigable anywhere by sea-going vessels, but only by flat-bottomed boats, with a carrying capacity of four to five hundred tons.

An Immense River of Ice.

A further fact must be borne in mind. The Yukon river is absolutely closed to travel save during the summer months. In the winter the Frost King asserts his dominion, and locks up all approaches with impenetrable ice, and the summer is of the briefest. It endures only for ten or twelve weeks, from about the middle of June to the early part of September. Then an unending panorama of extraordinary picturesqueness is unfolded to the voyager.

The banks are fringed with flowers, carpeted with all-pervading moss or tundra. Birds, countless in numbers, and of infinite variety in plumage, sing out a welcome from every tree top. Pitch your tent where you will in midsummer, a bed of roses, a clump of poppies, and a bunch of blue bells will adorn your camping. But high above this paradise of almost tropical exuberance, giant glaciers sleep in the summit of the mountain wall, which rises up from a bed of roses. By September everything is changed. The bed of roses has disappeared before the icy breath of the Winter King, which sends the thermometer down to eighty degrees below freezing point. The birds fly to the south-land, the white man to his cabin, the Indian to his hut, and the bear to his sleeping chamber in the mountains. Every stream becomes a sheet of ice, mountain and valley alike are covered with snow.

The part of the basin of the Yukon in which gold in greater or less quantities has actually been found lies partly in Alaska and partly in

British territory. It covers an area of some 50,000 square miles. But so far the infinitely richest spot lies some one hundred miles west of the American boundary, in the region drained by the Klondike and its tributaries. This is some three hundred miles by river from Circle City, which marks the extreme limit beyond which even flat bottom boats cannot find a navigable passage.

We have described some of the beauties of the Yukon basin in the summer season, but this radiant picture has its obverse side. In the first place the heat is as terrible as the cold in winter. It frequently mounts up to 120 in the shade.

Horseflies, gnats and mosquitoes add to the discomforts of living throughout the entire length of the Yukon Valley. The horsefly is larger and more poignantly assertive than the insect which we know by that name. In dressing or undressing it has an impertinent habit of detecting any bare spot in the body and biting out a piece of flesh, leaving a wound which a few days later looks like an incipient boil. Schwatka reports that one of his party so bitten was completely disabled for a week. "At the moment of infliction," he adds, "it was hard to believe that one was not disabled for life."

The mosquitoes, according to the same authority, are equally distressing. They are especially fond of cattle, but without any reciprocity of affection. "According to the general terms of the survival of the fittest and the growth of muscles most used to the detriment of others," says the lieutenant in an unusual burst of humor, "a band of cattle inhabiting this district in the far future would be all tail and no body, unless the mosquitoes should experience a change of numbers."

CHAPTER XXXIX.

MEXICO AND THE MEXICANS.

LET us suppose that we enter a ship at New York and sail to the south, along the eastern coast of the United States. After passing between Florida and Cuba we shall enter the Gulf of Mexico, and after a voyage of about five weeks shall reach Vera Cruz, in Mexico. We shall see nothing very interesting at Vera Cruz except the strong fortress of San Juan de Ulloa; so we will set out immediately for the city of Mexico. We shall find it situated on a vast plain, spreading to the north for many hundred miles, and elevated six or seven thousand feet above the level of the sea. It occupies a delightful valley, surrounded by mountains, whose tops are always covered with snow, and some of which occasionally send forth volumes of fire and smoke.

We shall be delighted with the city of Mexico at first; for in many respects it is one of the most charming places in the world. Being so high, it is visited, at all seasons of the year, with fresh breezes, like those of spring. The gardens are full of delicious fruits and fragrant flowers. There are groves of lemon and orange trees; melons of every kind abound; and the whole face of nature is covered with the most luxuriant vegetation. The forests are thronged with birds of bright plumage; the hills are adorned with wild flowers of surpassing beauty; and the very air is filled with fragrance, which comes from the meadows and groves.

In the city is a large church, called the Cathedral. On entering this church you will be amazed at the splendor of its interior. The altar is surrounded by a railing of solid silver; and there is a lamp of the same metal, so large that three men get into it when it is to be cleaned. It is enriched with lions' heads and other ornaments of pure gold. There are also in this Cathedral many statues of saints made of silver and ornamented with precious stones. Many other buildings in Mexico are lofty and spacious, and, being built of stone, have a magnificent appearance. There are many splendid palaces, surrounded with fountains, fragrant groves and beau-

tiful gardens. We shall observe that the people have a sallow complexion, with black hair and black eyes.

This country has many objects of interest—some natural, some artificial. Of the latter are the antiquarian relics of an earlier civilized race, and also of the Aztecs, who conquered them, many centuries before they were themselves conquered by the Spaniards. Some of these Aztec monuments are now included in the territory of the United States; and on the south bank of the river Gila, there are ruins of a city covering three miles square, called Casa Grande, or Great House, from a vast square building, set east and west, whose walls are of immense thickness. Fragments of pottery strew the surrounding plain. Among the most interesting natural objects are the lofty peaks of Orizaba and Popocatepetl.

Government of the Country.

The country of Mexico is divided into provinces, which are united under a general government, and have a national constitution similar to ours. But there are frequent disturbances in the country, and every thing seems to be in rather an unsettled state.

Before we leave Mexico, we should, if possible, go and see the silver mines. These are among the richest in the world, and yield several millions of dollars every year. As they lie among the mountains, at a considerable distance, we must again hire some mules, and obtain a guide. As we proceed on our journey we shall meet with a great many of the native Indians, who bear a strong resemblance to the savages of our country. Most of them are partly civilized, and some of them live in villages, quietly pursuing the various occupations of life. But when, at last, we reach the mines, we shall, perhaps, hardly have the courage to go into them. They are vast pits dug in the earth, some of them having a depth of more than a thousand feet. In these deep and dark caverns the miners are constantly occupied in digging the ore, which is taken from the mines, and afterwards the pure silver is separated from the dross.

If any of our young readers are tired of the sea, they may return to the United States by way of Santa Fe. They must travel on mules, or on foot, eleven hundred miles in a northerly direction, from the city of Mexico, have trusty guides, and be well armed. They will sometimes proceed, for days together, over vast plains; and perhaps one of the first things they see will be a wild, tawny, bright-eyed man, on a small but spirited horse,

careering at full speed after a herd of cattle, or chasing its frightened and scattered individuals. Strong, and active, and expert, he pulls one, and another, and another, down to the ground with his lasso, hamstringing them, disentangles his lasso, and then chases another victim.

When he has brought down enough, he butchers and skins them, and after the skins, which are called hides, are dried, he brings them to the trading-house, or hurls them down some one of the rocky precipices which line the coast, upon the sandy beach below. Here they are gathered up by the crews of the vessels at anchor, a short distance off, and carried aboard in boats.

They will often meet with Indians in their journey, some of them living in villages, and some roving through the wilderness. They will occasionally see cougars and fierce animals called jaguars. They will also meet with many wild animals and strange birds and towns filled with people, some of whom are white, some black, some red. After meeting with many adventures, my young friends will reach Santa Fe.

A Mixed Population.

Mexico is a vast country, containing twelve millions of inhabitants. Some of these are white, like the people of the United States, and are descended from Spanish emigrants, who settled in the country many years ago. There are negroes, also, who were originally slaves brought from Africa. A large part of the population are Indians, whose fathers once possessed the country, as the Indians possessed the land in the United States, before the Europeans came and took it from them. A little more than three hundred years ago, Mexico was inhabited only by Indians. But they were not savages, living in the woods, and subsisting upon wild beasts; on the contrary, they had large towns, splendid buildings, and an established government.

The king resided at the City of Mexico, then called Tenuchtitlan. It was a magnificent city, filled with temples, towers, and palaces. It surpassed everything else of the kind, that then existed in America, in richness and grandeur. It was in the year 1519 that the Spaniards first heard of this great kingdom. Expecting to get a great deal of gold and silver, they determined to send some men to conquer it. Accordingly, six hundred soldiers, commanded by Fernando Cortez, set out for Mexico. Firearms were not then in general use, so that only thirteen of the men

had muskets. The rest were variously armed with crossbows, swords, and spears. They had, however, ten small field-pieces, and sixteen horses, the first of these animals ever seen by the natives. They went in eleven small vessels, and soon reached the coast of Mexico.

They entered the mouth of a river, but the Indians came in multitudes to the shore, to oppose their landing. Cortez tried to make peace with them, but they refused to listen, and hurled a shower of stones and arrows upon the fleet. The vessels were soon ranged in a circle, and, the cannon being loaded, they were discharged among the crowd. The Indians were utterly astonished at the thunder and the smoke, and frightened by the havoc which the cannon made among the people. They, therefore, ran away, and shut themselves up in a fortified town, called Tabasco.

Cortez landed his men, and proceeded to the town. This was surrounded with stakes, and the Indians defended it as well as they could. But they were soon overcome, and, flying to the forests, the Spaniards entered the place in triumph. But the next day, Cortez was informed that about forty thousand natives were coming against him. He, therefore, left the town, placed his men in good situation, and waited for the attack.



FERNANDO CORTEZ.

At length they came, seeming as countless as the trees of the forest. The greater part of them were almost naked. Some were armed with bows and arrows; some with spears; some with clubs; some with wooden swords; and others with slings, by means of which they could hurl large stones with great force. They had martial music, produced by flutes made of reeds and by large shells, and drums formed of the trunks of trees.

On they came, the little band of Spaniards waiting for them in silence. With a terrible cry, the Indians rushed upon them. Then the cannon opened their mouths, and poured their deadly shot upon the multitude.

Many of them were slain ; but the Indians bravely stood their ground, and showered upon the Spaniards such a cloud of arrows as to darken the air. The ranks of the latter were at length broken, and they were on the point of being defeated.

At this critical moment, Cortez, who was stationed in the woods near by, sallied out upon the Indians with a small troop of horse. Now, the Indians had never seen a horse before, and believing each trooper with his horse to be some horrible monster, they were struck with superstitious dread, and, turning from the fight, ran away like a flock of sheep. Eight hundred of their number lay dead on the field of battle, while the Spaniards lost only two men.

Cortez and the Chiefs Form a Treaty of Peace.

Cortez had taken some prisoners, but he treated them kindly, and dismissed them, having given them some presents. They went away very much pleased, and told their countrymen what had passed. The Indians now dismissed their fears, and some of them brought the Spaniards provisions. After this, the chief sent to Cortez, requesting peace, and a treaty was accordingly entered into between him and the Spanish leader. Then the chief came, with some of his principal men, to see Cortez, who received them graciously. While they were talking together, one of the horses neighed. The Mexicans were in great fear, and asked what those terrible people, with long necks and long tails, would have. Cortez told them they were angry because the Mexicans fought the Spaniards. They then ran, and got some quilts for the horses to lie upon, and some chickens for them to eat, and promised to behave better in future.

After this, Cortez entered into his vessels, and sailed to a place nearer the City of Mexico. Here he landed his troops, and the people, not being suspicious, assisted him. By and by, some of the Mexican warriors paid him a visit. They were magnificently dressed, and gave the Spaniards a high idea of the riches of the country. After a while, messengers came from Montezuma, the king, inquiring why Cortez and his soldiers came.

Cortez replied that he could only deliver his answer to the king himself, and requested permission to go to his capital. The king would not consent to this, but he sent to Cortez some very magnificent presents. Among these were bracelets, necklaces, and other trinkets, wrought in solid gold, with the utmost skill and elegance ; boxes filled with precious

stones, pearls and gold dust; and two large orbs, one of massy gold, representing the sun; and the other of silver, representing the moon.

Cortez received the presents, but still insisted upon going to see the king. But another messenger came from Montezuma, forbidding him to come. Cortez treated him in a haughty manner, and he was offended; he therefore, with all the Mexican people, immediately left the Spaniards. Cortez was astonished at this; but, after a while, he was invited with his men to go and see a cacique or chief, who lived at no great distance. Accordingly they set out, and after marching a few days, came in sight of the town where the cacique lived. At first the soldiers thought the walls of the city were made of silver, for they had a white and shining appearance. But when they came nearer them, it appeared that they were only plastered with lime.

At length the Spaniards entered the town, and were graciously received by the chief. But what was their surprise to find him so fat and bulky that he could neither stand up nor walk alone! They could hardly help laughing aloud in his presence. They soon discovered, however, that he was a very intelligent man. He treated them kindly, and the people of the town supplied them abundantly with all sorts of delicious fruits.

False and Treacherous to Both Sides.

Cortez now found that several powerful chiefs hated Montezuma, and were anxious to throw off his yoke. Accordingly, he encouraged them to rebel, and promised to assist them. At the same time he secretly sent word to Montezuma, professing to be his friend, and declaring his intention to be devoted to his interests. Thus false and treacherous to both parties, he pursued his own selfish schemes. His determination was to dethrone the king, overturn the government, and become master of the empire. With this view he began to found a Spanish colony at Vera Cruz, the place at which, you will recollect, we landed in our imaginary voyage to Mexico.

But Montezuma was still afraid of Cortez, and he therefore sent two of his princes to him with presents of immense value, and a message begging him to depart from the country. To this the Spanish leader replied that he had been commanded by his king to march to the capital, and deliver to the emperor himself a message of the utmost importance, and that no danger whatever could deter him, or his men, from executing this high commission. The princes, struck with admiration of the bold character



SLAUGHTER OF NATIVE MEXICANS BY THE SPANIARDS.

of Cortez, returned to Montezuma, and gave him a full account of what they had seen.

About this time some of the Spanish soldiers had become weary of their toils, and foreseeing the dangers to which they would be exposed, determined to seize the ships, and return to Cuba. Cortez discovered the plot, and, by his artful management, diverted the men from their purpose. He was very eloquent, and he addressed the soldiers, setting before them in glowing colors his splendid schemes and the immense wealth they would all realize should they be successful. Excited by this speech, the soldiers ran to the vessels and destroyed them, thus putting it out of their power to leave the country. This was exactly what Cortez desired, for he knew that the soldiers, having no means of retreat, would fight desperately.

Fierce Battles with the Indians.

Cortez now set out with his troops, accompanied by six hundred Indian allies, for the purpose of proceeding to Tenuchtitlan. After having marched two or three days they reached the Cordilleras. Here was a district lying among the mountains called Tlascala. It was inhabited by a nation of brave Indians, who had thrown off the authority of Montezuma, and lived in independence. Cortez sent messengers to make peace with them, but the bold mountaineers would not make peace. They gathered their warriors together, and six thousand of them went against the Spaniards. A dreadful battle followed, but the Indians were defeated. Three more battles were fought; thousands of the Indians were killed; and, finally, the Tlascalans sued for peace.

Peace was accordingly made, and Cortez, being invited to the city of Tlascala, the capital, went there with his army. The people received them joyfully. The streets were thronged with men, women, and children, who rent the air with shouts and acclamations, intermingled with the noise of drums, fifes, and other instruments. Young girls strewed their path with flowers, and the priests walked before the soldiers with burning incense. At length the Spaniards, whom the people called gods, were conducted to a large building, where everything was provided for their comfort and pleasure.

After a little while Cortez set out with six thousand Tlascalan warriors to pursue his march towards the capital of Mexico. He was soon met by messengers from Montezuma, requesting him to come by way of Cholula. Accordingly the army marched to that city. But it was soon discovered

that a plot had been formed to destroy Cortez and his army; the chiefs of Cholula were therefore seized, and the town given up to plunder. For two whole days the six hundred Spanish soldiers and the six thousand Tlascallans went through the city slaughtering men, women, and children. Tears and cries obtained no mercy. The houses and streets were everywhere stained with blood; and finally a large temple to which hundreds of the inhabitants had fled for safety, was set on fire, and all the miserable people in it were consumed. Such was the awful vengeance of Cortez towards his enemies!

Strange as it may seem, Cortez had the address to make friends of the people of Cholula who had escaped the massacre. They became his allies, and he marched on towards Tenuchtitlan. After proceeding several days, he reached a large city, called Tezcucó. The chief received him kindly, and everywhere the people manifested a desire to be released from the harsh government of Montezuma. Leaving this place the army proceeded, and after crossing some mountains, a beautiful valley of great extent was presented to their view. In the midst was a vast lake resembling a sea, and villages, cities, and hamlets seemed to rise out of its very bosom.

First Sight of the Beautiful City.

Among these, Tenuchtitlan, the capital, could be distinguished by the prodigious number of its temples and towers. When the Spaniards first looked upon this scene they could scarcely believe their senses. The fertile valley, encircled by mountains, whose tops were covered with snow; the rich groves of fruit trees, the blue lake, and the cities glittering with gold and silver, seemed more like a beautiful dream than a reality.

At length the army descended into the valley, approached the lake, and, crossing one of the bridges, were about to enter the town. Here they were met by about a thousand people of distinction, dressed in mantles of cotton cloth, with bunches of feathers on their heads. These advanced in silence, each, in passing, saluting Cortez with the most profound respect. Then came two hundred of the king's attendants, richly dressed; and finally Montezuma himself appeared, in a car of gold, borne on the shoulders of four men. Some other men held a canopy of green feathers over him, and three chiefs, bearing golden wands, walked at the head of the company. When these raised their wands the people covered their faces, as if they were not worthy of beholding the august person of their king.

Cortez and the king now approached each other, the ground being covered with carpets, so that Montezuma's feet might not be soiled by touching the earth. They met and saluted each other with profound respect. Montezuma was about forty years old, and was dressed in a fine cotton robe, profusely ornamented with gold and silver. On his head he wore a crown of gold.

After some ceremonies the king entered the city, and the army followed. The city consisted of about twenty thousand houses, with many magnificent temples and palaces, far surpassing in grandeur anything that had been supposed to exist in America. A large palace was assigned to Cortez and his troops, and they were abundantly furnished with all the provision they wanted. Here Montezuma visited Cortez, and treated him in the most gracious manner.

They Worshipped a Multitude of Idols.

We must now tell our readers that the Mexicans knew nothing of the Bible, and had never heard of Jesus Christ. They had many absurd notions of religion, and paid their worship to a multitude of idols. They erected splendid temples in honor of these gods, and entertained for them the most profound reverence. Multitudes of priests attended the temples, and sacrificed thousands of human beings to their deities. These consisted chiefly of prisoners taken in war. Their captives were generally preserved, that their blood might be shed by the priests in honor of the gods.

Now, Cortez was professedly a Christian, and these things shocked him very much. He could make war upon a defenceless people, slay them by thousands, plot the destruction of their government, and pursue his schemes by falsehood, treachery and violence; but the sacrifice of human victims to idols appeared to him very wicked and absurd. It may seem to us very strange that the Mexicans could imagine the horrid practices of their religion were right; but it is still more strange that Cortez could believe his conduct was agreeable to the peaceful doctrines of Christianity.

Montezuma supposed that the strangers would be very much gratified to see the Mexican temples. So he went with them, showed them the idols, and explained everything. After Cortez had seen it all he told the king that the Mexican religion was false and wicked. He also told him something about the Christian religion. Montezuma was very much shocked, and he told Cortez that he must not speak irreverently of the Mexican gods.

The king was evidently angry, and he began secretly to take measures for killing the Spaniards. But nothing escaped the vigilance of Cortez. He quickly discovered the plot, and resorted to a very bold measure for defeating it. He went, with about thirty of his bravest men, to the palace of the king. They were admitted and received by Montezuma with apparent friendship. After some conversation Cortez told the king he must go with him to his quarters. The monarch was enraged, but Cortez was firm, and finding it in vain to resist, the king yielded, and was carried a prisoner to the palace which the Spanish soldiers occupied.

Montezuma Compelled to Submit.

Thus the sovereign of this vast empire was placed in the power of the bold and artful Cortez. The latter now began to take measures to humble the spirit of Montezuma by assuming a haughty air; and in one instance he went so far as to put chains upon him. At length the subdued captive summoned his chiefs, and, while the tears flowed from his eyes, acknowledged himself a vassal of the King of Spain, and promised to pay him a vast sum of money every year. Cortez now became very arrogant, and resolved to destroy the images in the Mexican temples. He therefore went to one of them for this purpose, but he found the priests and the people determined to resist what they deemed a very impious design. Cortez perceived that it would be imprudent to proceed further, and accordingly abandoned his intention to destroy the temples.

He was now called to encounter new and unexpected difficulties. Montezuma had messengers in all parts of the kingdom, who immediately came and informed him if anything remarkable happened. One day some of these arrived from the coast with pictures of eighteen European vessels that had just come there. Cortez soon learned that the Governor of Cuba, having become jealous of him, had sent a thousand men in these ships to make him a prisoner or kill him.

Cortez did not hesitate as to what he should do; he left a hundred and fifty men at the city of Tenuchtitlan to preserve order, and set out with about two hundred and fifty to meet the Spaniards, who were commanded by Narvaez. He attacked them by night, and after a desperate struggle obtained a complete victory. Narvaez was wounded, and he, with eight hundred of his men, fell into the hands of Cortez.

He now proposed to the prisoners to become his soldiers, and to this

they agreed. Thus an event which seemed to threaten his destruction resulted in adding eight hundred Spanish soldiers to his little army.

But now messengers came in haste from the capital and informed Cortez that the inhabitants had risen, and made an attack upon the soldiers he had left, and that, if he did not hasten back, they would all be slain. He therefore lost no time, but marched with the greatest expedition, and at length re-entered the city. He immediately took possession of his former quarters, where he found Montezuma still remaining in the care of his troops. They had been fiercely assaulted by the people, who were now greatly excited against the Spaniards.

A Storm of Arrows and Javelins.

A few days after this four hundred of the soldiers were surrounded in the streets, and a violent attack was made upon them by thousands of the inhabitants. Stones were hurled from the roofs of the houses, and innumerable arrows and javelins filled the air like a storm of hail. The Spaniards hewed their way through crowds of the enemy, and regained their quarters, leaving heaps of the slain Indians in the streets.

But the spirit of vengeance was now thoroughly roused in the Mexicans, and, heedless of the dreadful slaughter which was made by the cannon and muskets, they gathered in immense numbers, and came like a rolling torrent against the castle of the enemy. Cortez and his troops, who were never unprepared, received the shock with the utmost firmness. They had planted their cannon in such a manner that at every discharge many of the natives were cut down. But they were not intimidated.

They rushed to the very gates of the castle, and climbed on each other's shoulders in the attempt to scale the walls. They came up to the very mouths of the cannon and points of the muskets. As the foremost were shot down others filled their places. The air rang with their terrible shouts, and the thunder of the cannon was drowned by the uproar of their drums, fifes and horns.

Thus, for a whole day, the assault continued. At night the Mexicans withdrew, for their religion did not allow them to continue the battle after sundown. But the next morning the fight was renewed, and throughout the whole day it did not cease for a moment. Thus for several days the siege continued, during which thousands of the Mexicans were killed, and one-third part of the city was laid in ruins.

At length Montezuma, who was still with Cortez, appeared upon the walls, dressed in a robe sparkling with jewels. When the people saw him they were all silent, and bowed to the earth in the deepest reverence. Then Montezuma spoke to them. He told them the Spaniards were his friends and begged them to throw down their arms, and go home in peace. The people heard this with indignation. At first a gentle murmur was heard among the multitude like a breeze sweeping over a forest. But it grew deeper and louder, and at length the angry shout of the people burst forth like a rushing tempest. Then a thousand arrows flew from the bow strings of the Mexicans, and the wounded monarch fell senseless to the ground.

He was now taken into the castle, and by and by his senses returned. But oppressed with shame and indignation he grew frantic; tore open his wounds, upbraided Cortez for his perfidy, rejected with scorn and loathing the attempts that were made to convert him to the Christian religion, and at length found a release from his sufferings in death.

A New King Renews the Conflict.

When the Mexicans saw their monarch fall they were struck with amazement, and fearing the immediate vengeance of Heaven, abandoned the siege and returned home. But after his death a new king was elected, and the attack was renewed. On the top of the high temple, which overlooked the Spanish castle, they collected a great many stones and beams to hurl down upon their enemies. Cortez went to this temple, with some of his bravest men, to drive away the Mexicans.

An awful struggle followed. The two parties met in the upper part of the building, and the Mexicans, consisting of chiefs and men of rank, fought like tigers. They would neither fly nor surrender; preferring death to submission, some of them leaped from the lofty pinnacle of the temple to the earth, and were crushed in the fall. Two noble youths approached Cortez, and seizing him, dragged him to the edge of the pinnacle. Then, holding fast to his limbs, they leaped over the railing, intending to drag him after them. But Cortez was a strong man, and knowing his great danger, held fast to the railing, while the two Mexicans, forced to quit their hold, swung from the pinnacle, and were dashed in pieces upon the earth below.

Cortez now returned to his quarters, and finding it dangerous for him to remain in the city, secretly determined to retreat. In a dark and rainy

night he set out with his army, hoping to escape unperceived. They were crossing the lake, when, being on a narrow part of the causeway, they were suddenly attacked by thousands of the Mexicans, who covered the water with their boats. A dreadful scene followed: fighting in the thick darkness they could not distinguish friends from foes. Multitudes of the Indians were slain, and, forming a bridge of their bodies, Cortez and a part of his army escaped to the shore. But two hundred of the Spanish troops were killed, with two thousand of their Tlascalan allies. Some prisoners and all the cannon and baggage fell into the hands of the Mexicans.

The Capital Besieged.

This dreadful event is still remembered in Mexico, and the night on which it occurred is called the "night of desolation." Cortez and his little band now retreated to the city of Tlascala, cutting their way, with desperate bravery, through the thousands of enemies that opposed them. Here they remained some time, when, having received a reinforcement of several hundred Spanish soldiers, Cortez marched back to Tezcuco, resolved, if possible, to take the capital. With immense labor, timber was brought from a distance; several vessels were built and launched on the lake, and the siege began.

We must now tell our readers that Quetlevaca, the brother of Montezuma, who had been made king at his death, was not now living. He died of the small-pox, which the Spaniards brought into the country, and Guatimozin, a young man of high courage, was now king in his stead. He had put the city in the best state of defence; so that, although the Spaniards attacked it bravely, they were, day after day, and week after week, repulsed by the Mexicans.

Weary of the protracted siege, Cortez and his troops one day made a fierce assault, and, with incredible valor, burst into the city; cutting down those who opposed them, and trampling the dead and dying beneath their feet, they rushed on to the centre of the city. But there they were opposed with such bravery, that after a while they gave way, and were driven back. Cortez himself was seized by three Mexicans, who were dragging him away, when two of his officers came to his relief. These were both killed in the struggle which followed, but Cortez escaped.

At length, night came, and the Spaniards, being unable to retreat across the lake, were obliged to stay in the city. In the night, the great

temple was lighted up, and, by the glare, they could see their companions, who had been taken prisoners, sacrificed to the god of war. They could see them obliged to dance before the hideous idol, and could hear their screams, when the torture was inflicted upon them.

The next day Cortez left the city, and soon, being reinforced by more than one hundred thousand Indians, he made an attack at three points. After the most obstinate fighting, and great slaughter, the town was captured, and Guatimozin himself, in an attempt to escape, was taken, and carried a prisoner to Cortez. He besought the Spaniards to treat his wife and children with kindness, but for himself he betrayed neither fear nor anxiety. With an air of dignity, he addressed Cortez, and said, "I have done what I could to save my country, but my efforts have been unsuccessful. I have now no desire to live, for my life is worthless to me and my people. I pray you to take that weapon by your side, plunge it in my breast, and release me from an existence that is now a burden."

The Whole Country Conquered.

At this speech, the wife of Guatimozin burst into an agony of tears, and Cortez, who was very much affected by the scene, retired, that the unhappy captives might indulge their grief without restraint.

The Mexicans, now that their king was taken, made no further resistance. Not only the capital, but the whole country, fell into the hands of the conquerors. But the soldiers of Cortez did not find a great deal of gold and silver in the city; and, being greatly disappointed, they became very angry. They suspected that Guatimozin had caused his treasures to be concealed, and, therefore, required of Cortez, that he and his first minister should be tortured, in order to make them tell where they had secreted their gold, silver, and precious stones.

Cortez consented, and Guatimozin and his minister were stretched on live coals by the infuriated Spaniards. Unable longer to endure his dreadful agony, the minister uttered a shriek, and turned his eye upon Guatimozin, as if asking permission to disclose the secret desired by the Spaniards. To this the king replied, calmly, "Am I on a bed of roses?" This rebuke silenced the minister, and he said no more, patiently enduring his anguish till he was released by death. Finding that the resolution of Guatimozin could not be shaken by torture, the Spaniards ceased from their cruel endeavors.

Cortez now sent his officers to various parts of the kingdom, and the inhabitants throughout the country were soon forced to submit. The empire was divided into provinces, and placed under Spanish governors. These, being destitute of humanity, governed with a degree of cruelty too shocking to relate. The blood of the poor Mexicans flowed like water, to satisfy the avarice of the invaders. Hundreds of them were burnt alive, and wives and children were often compelled to witness the burning of their husbands and fathers at the stake. There is not, in the record of human actions, a page of history more stained with the foulest of crimes, than that which relates to the conduct of Cortez and his generals, after the conquest of Mexico.

Cortez was soon appointed governor of Mexico, which was called by the Spaniards New Spain. He began to rebuild the capital, which now received the appellation of Mexico. But his enemies sent home to Spain unfavorable reports of his conduct. He, therefore, went back to his native country, where he was received by the king with great respect. But he was deprived of his government, and, from this time, fortune seemed to desert him. He went again to America, and made some discoveries on the western coast. Finally, he returned to Spain, where, being treated with total neglect, he died in obscurity, at the age of sixty-two.

The Downfall of the Conqueror.

Such was the fate of Cortez, one of the most extraordinary men the world has ever produced. The story of his deeds seem like a romantic dream. We cannot fail to admire his talents and perseverance; but his cruelty, injustice, and treachery entitle him to everlasting infamy.

Mexico, from this time, continued to be a dependency of Spain. The government was arbitrary and oppressive. The Indians, of whom there were many millions when the country was conquered, rapidly diminished, and, in the course of time, became the mere slaves and tools of the Spaniards, who settled in the country.

Thus centuries passed by, till, at length, the oppression of the Spanish government became intolerable. In 1808, the people rebelled, and, in 1820, after a struggle of twelve years, Spain acknowledged their independence. In 1824, a new Constitution was formed, but it was abolished in 1836.

For many years after this the history of Mexico was a record of merely chronic disorder and civil war. Within that period the country

had fifty-two presidents or dictators, another emperor, and a regency; and in nearly every case the change of administration was brought about with violence, a respectable portion of these great men being ultimately shot by some opposing faction.

In 1836 Texas secured its independence, for which it had struggled for several years, and which Mexico was compelled to recognize in 1845. In that year Texas was incorporated with the United States; but its western boundary was not settled, which led to the breaking out of war between our own country and Mexico. The war was continued with great energy by both parties until 1848, when peace was finally concluded after several bloody engagements had been fought, and the city of Mexico had been stormed and taken by the Americans under General Scott.

Outcome of the Mexican War.

In the Mexican campaign General Zachary Taylor became prominent on account of his military successes. He was considered an able general, a devoted patriot, and, what was of great importance to his political party, an available candidate for the presidency. He was nominated for this high office and elected, but, as already stated, did not live long to enjoy his honors.

As a result of this war Mexico was compelled to cede half a million square miles to her powerful neighbor. After the fall of President Santa Anna in 1855, down to 1867, great confusion prevailed. In 1858 Benito Juarez became president, but his claims were contested by General Miriamon, and the country was plunged into civil war. The acts of wanton aggression and flagrant injustice perpetrated on foreigners in Mexico during this period of internal disorder, by which they were robbed of payments which were due them, could not fail to draw upon the Mexican government the serious remonstrance of those European powers whose subjects had just cause of complaint; and the result was to bring a fleet of English, French and Spanish ships into the Mexican Gulf for the purpose of enforcing satisfaction.

In 1861 the Spaniards disembarked a force at Vera Cruz, and this step was soon followed by the arrival before that city of the allied fleet. Preparations to advance at once upon the capital alarmed the provisional government, and brought about an armistice, with a view of negotiating a treaty for the future regulation of commercial intercourse between Mexico and the great European powers. This treaty was drawn up

and ratified by the different commanders, but not confirmed on the part of France, and consequently the French troops retained occupation of the Mexican territory after the English and Spaniards had declined to join in further hostile demonstrations.

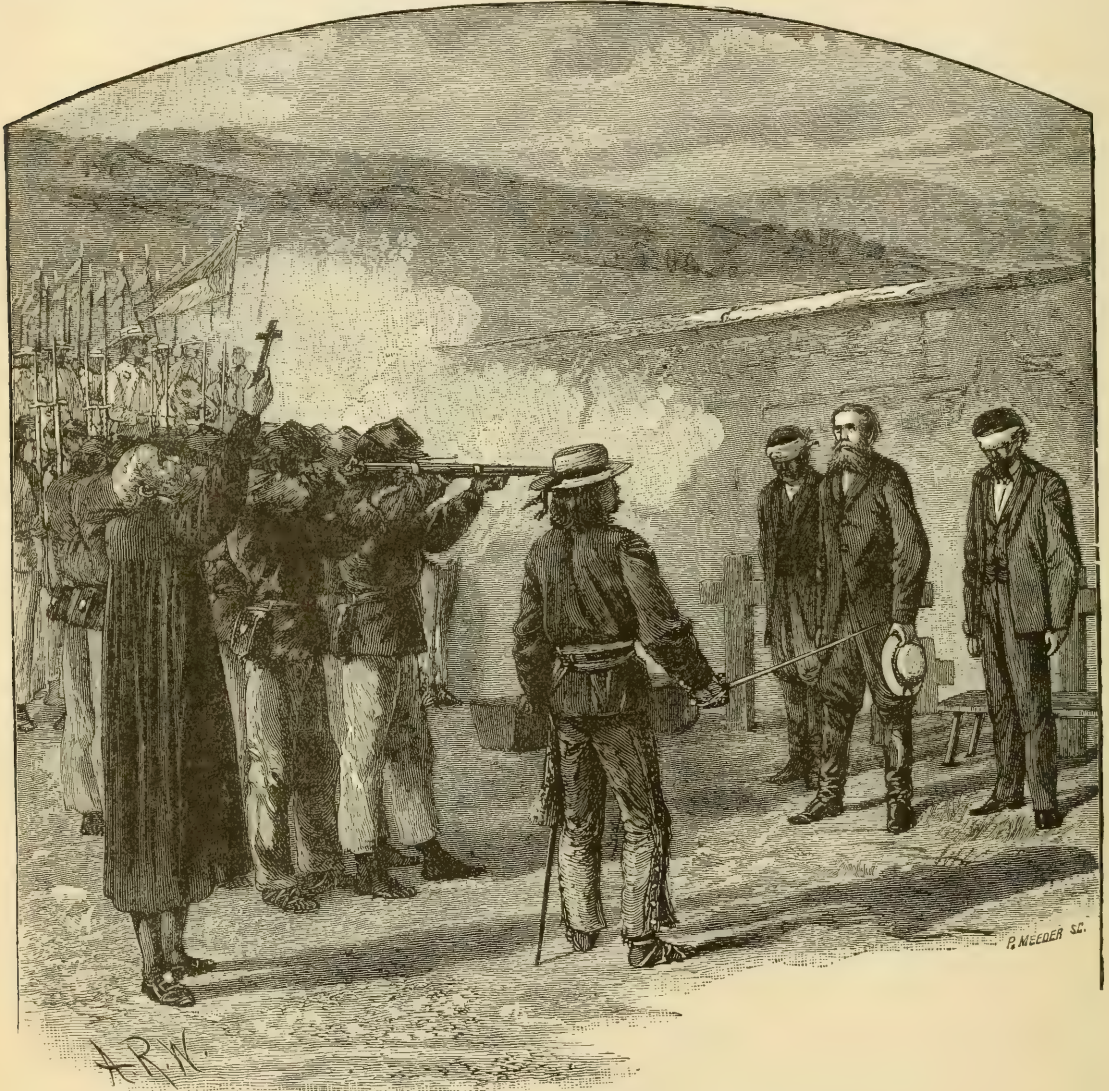


EMPEROR MAXIMILIAN.

Discovering that France was seeking to use the expedition to destroy the independence of Mexico, England and Spain settled their claims with the republic by the convention of Soledad, on the 4th of March, 1862, and withdrew their forces.

The French, however, continued the war, and after a hard struggle, during which the Mexicans fought gallantly for their country, Mexico was

conquered, and early in June, 1863, the French army entered the capital. The Emperor of the French now proceeded to overthrow the republic, it being his intention to replace it with an empire which should be dependent upon France. An election was held, and, under the intimidation of the



EMPEROR MAXIMILIAN SHOT BY MEXICAN TROOPS.

French, resulted in a majority in favor of the abolition of the republic, and the erection of the empire. Through the same influence the Mexicans chose Maximilian, archduke of Austria, Emperor of Mexico, and in an evil hour for himself that amiable and high-souled prince accepted the crown.


The government of the United States had viewed the interference of France in Mexican affairs with marked displeasure; but being too much engaged in its efforts to bring the civil war to a successful close to undertake any new difficulty, simply entered its protest against the action of France. The civil war having been brought to a close, however, it took a bolder stand, and demanded of the French Emperor the withdrawal of his troops from Mexico. The action of the government was sustained by the great mass of the American people, and it was believed by many that foreign war would be a sure and speedy way of bringing about the restoration of the Union.

The Emperor Napoleon hesitated for a while, but finally acceded to the American demand. The French troops were recalled at the close of the year 1866, and the Emperor Maximilian was left to face the Mexican people alone. They at once rose against him, defeated his forces and took him prisoner. On the 19th of June, 1867, he was shot by order of the Mexican government, in spite of the efforts of the United States to save him. Thus ended the hope of reviving the political dominion of France on the American continent.

On the death of Juarez, in 1872, the chief justice, Lerdo de Tejada, assumed the presidency, in which, after a revolution, he was succeeded in 1876 by Porfirio Diaz, one of the ablest of Mexican rulers. He was re-elected in 1884, and repeatedly afterward, having proved his ability to administer the affairs of the nation to the satisfaction of the people at large. Under him the position of the republic, with regard both to security and the development of its resources, has steadily improved.

CHAPTER XL.

CUBA AND HER STRUGGLE FOR FREEDOM.

UBA, the finest and largest of the West India Islands, was discovered by Columbus himself, on the 28th day of October, 1492, and was named by him Juana, in honor of Prince John, the son of King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella, the sovereigns of Aragon and Castile.

Upon the death of Ferdinand, the Island was called Fernandina. It afterwards received the name of Santiago, as a mark of reverence for the patron saint of Spain, and still later, the inhabitants, to illustrate their piety, gave it that of Ave Maria, in honor of the Holy Virgin. Notwithstanding these several titles, the island is still principally known by its original Indian name of Cuba; a name which it bore when the great navigator first landed on its shores, and which in all probability it is destined to retain.

Since the beginning of the present century Cuba has been the scene of revolutions or uprisings of one kind or another. The direct aim of most, if not all, of these has been to free the island from Spanish control. The city-armed natives, joined by bands of stragglers and aided by filibusters, have struggled without organization against drilled, uniformed and comparatively well-equipped regular troops representing Spain.

For a long time insurrection was the term applied to these uprisings. At first and, indeed, until recently, it may be doubted if these uprisings had the genuine sympathy of the Cubans as a body. And, consequently, they were foredoomed to be failures. But the history of these struggles is replete with brave deeds and exhibitions of personal courage and strategy that would do credit to a body of men familiar with the science of warfare and accustomed to facing danger on the battle-field.

The Spanish colonies, Cuba excepted, gained their independence in 1820-21. Bolivar was their successful leader, and when he had freed the other provinces of Spain he turned his attention particularly to Cuba. But for a time his project failed; some revolutionists allege that it was the refusal of the United States to countenance such efforts which prevented

their success. Be that as it may, the efforts of the islanders to throw off the Spanish yoke came to nothing material. But Bolivar and his fellow-conspirators were determined and sought by every means in their power to stir up rebellion in the island. Commissioners were sent to Cuba to create sentiment favorable to revolution. They were soon seized by the Spanish authorities and executed. Bolivar's plan came to a dismal end.

Revolution was in the blood of many of the Cubans, however, and not many years later it had manifestation. From 1848 to 1854 small and ill-planned uprisings took place. Certain elements in the Southern States assisted in encouraging these insurrections.

There was for some time in Southern circles a project looking to the annexation of Cuba and its division into four States, each of which, of course, would have been entitled to representation in Congress, giving the South, perhaps, eight Senators and sixteen Representatives, and so throwing the balance of power here into the hands of the slavery advocates.

Uprising of Patriots Led by Lopez.

The most important of these movements was that headed by Narciso Lopez, who had served in the Spanish army as a general of division, but who, on going to Cuba, espoused the cause of the revolutionists. He, with Crittenden, the Kentuckian, with a force of some four hundred Americans and two hundred Cubans, set out from New Orleans, landing at Cardenas, on the north coast of Cuba, and captured it by assault. The victory was a hollow one, for the time had been ill-advised and the country did not rise.

Finding themselves without support and seeing that without aid from the Cubans they must be captured or driven into the sea, the invaders returned to Key West. The Cubans on that occasion regarded the movement as one solely in the interest of slavery, and believed its projectors inspired by mercenary motives.

But Lopez was not to be cast down by one failure. He made a second attempt and landed at Bahia Honda. There he encountered a force of Spanish troops, under General Henna, and put them to rout. The Spanish commander was killed, and for the time the star of Lopez was in the ascendant.

Still the country did not rise. Lopez, in the western end of the island, where Spanish troops were strongest and the revolutionary spirit weakest, soon found himself surrounded and overpowered. Crittenden, who

was to have joined him, remained on the coast, and finally attempted to escape, by taking to the open sea in boats. He was captured, with fifty of his men, and all were put to death in Havana. The execution was marked by atrocities, the news of which rang through the civilized world, making the flesh creep.

The forces of Lopez, overpowered by Spanish troops, were dispersed with ease. The commander himself was garroted.



CITY AND HARBOR OF HAVANA.

The island was quiet for a time then, but not for long. Other attempts to raise the country, up to 1854, were those of Pinto, a Spaniard of revolutionist tendencies; Estrampes and Aguero, the last-named of whom freed all his slaves before he raised the rebel standard. He was the first out-spoken abolitionist in Cuba. He and the other leaders were captured, after a brief struggle, and executed.

There were some unimportant risings after that, but none of note until after the American Civil War. This conflict abolished slavery. Then the Southern States had no further object in meddling with Cuba. The

filibustering movements died out. It remained for Cuba to attempt to work out its own salvation.

In 1868 came the hour which thousands of patriots hailed as the dawn of deliverance; for on October 10th, of that year, Cespedes raised the five-barred flag at Yara. He was a lawyer, and logical above all things; so to begin with he freed his two hundred slaves, and they followed him to battle to a man. The entire eastern end of the island rose against the Spaniards at the call of Cespedes, but the men were without arms or discipline. Their spirit was unquestioned, but they were of little utility against well-armed and disciplined forces.

Flocking to the Standard of the Insurgents.

Their leaders were Maximo Gomez, Marmol and Figueredo. The centre of the island, called Camaguey, flocked to the standard of the Marquis de Lucia and the Agramontes in November, and as enthusiasm and confidence came with numbers the beginning of 1889 saw Las Villas in rebellion with 14,000 men, among whom there were not more than 100 armed with effective firearms. To oppose these unarmed and undisciplined enthusiasts there were 15,000 regulars.

The western end of the island proved cold, but even there small uprisings were fomented. They were put down without difficulty. Aid from without was not wanting. In December, 1868, General Quesada landed with the first expedition from Nassau, bringing the first consignment of arms and munitions of war. The revolutionist cause prospered, and on April 10, 1869, a new government was constituted and a House of Assembly established. Cespedes was President of the provisional government, and Quesada commander-in-chief of the forces.

The government, which had little beyond its name, issued a proclamation giving freedom to all the negroes in the island—a matter which gave great offence to the Spaniards, even those of liberal tendencies.

Ten years of desultory warfare followed; the revolutionists held the centre of the island and the mountains, but were unable to obtain any standing in the seaports, as their flag was not recognized there by the great powers, although it was duly saluted from time to time by the South American Republics. The United States did not recognize the revolutionists, despite the efforts of General Rawlings and Senator Sherman to that end.

Every effort was made to send arms to the insurgents. There were

continual attempts at blockade running. Some of these expeditions evaded capture, but others were taken by Spanish troops and the leaders were promptly executed; the most notable was that of the "Virginus," under Captain Fry. The "Virginus" put out from Kingston, Jamaica.

The capture of the "Virginus" and the summary execution of American citizens by the Spanish authorities so excited this nation at the time that war with Spain seemed certain. This was one of the most notable incidents in Cuban history, at least in point of American interest.

Had the popular voice been heeded at that time a peaceful solution of the difficulty would have been impossible. Feeling ran so high throughout the country that public meetings were held all over the country denouncing the execution as a butchery, and warlike preparations were begun in many cities. In some cases ships were prepared to go to sea in anticipation of an immediate declaration of war.

Story of the Ill-fated "Virginus."

The voyage of the "Virginus" was begun in November of 1873. The steamer was pursued by the Spanish warship "Tornado," and captured within sight of the Morant Point Light-house, at the east end of Jamaica. She was towed at once into Santiago de Cuba, despite the fact that she was flying the Stars and Stripes and was in British waters. Fifty-three of her men were shot in a public square in Santiago, in some instances after they had been given a trial lasting only ten minutes.

Among them was Captain Joseph Fry, who commanded the ship; Barnade Varona, W. A. C. Ryan, Jesus del Sol and Pedro Cespedes. There was no United States cruiser within reach of Santiago, but the British man-of-war "Niobe" arrived in time to prevent further slaughter of American and English subjects. Her commander, Sir Lambon Lorraine, acted with quickness and determination. "Shoot another Englishman or American," he said, "and the 'Niobe' will bombard the city."

Then the slaughter ceased. Both the United States and England protested through their representatives, and sent men-of-war to protect the other prisoners. The survivors were delivered up to the rescuing ships and brought to New York, and the "Virginus," with a hole in her bottom, sank off Frying Pan Shoals.

The return of the survivors, and an accurate knowledge of the details of the shooting, only served to fan into fierce blaze the fire of popular

indignation. The general voice was for war with Spain, and General Sickles, then American Minister in Madrid, had already asked to be recalled, and was preparing to leave the capital. Finally, however, the matter was adjusted diplomatically. The Spanish Government paid an indemnity for the American subjects shot with General Ryan and Thomas Ryan, and the war cloud blew over.

But in Cuba the revolutionists continued their fight for supremacy. For five years—until 1878—they strove against terrible odds in the centre of the island and in the mountains. At last they saw that the lack of arms and supplies, and of money to purchase either, had made the struggle a hopeless one, and they decided to make peace.

Deceptive Promises made by Spain.

A treaty was signed, by which Spain granted the native Cubans certain liberties, promised to reform their administration in some measure, and recognized the freedom of all the slaves who had fought in the Cuban army. It had been a long and desperate fight. Quesada had been succeeded as general-in-chief by General Thomas Jordan, formerly General Beauregard's chief of staff, and a West Pointer. He lent much strength to the cause, but abandoned it as hopeless after a year's campaigning in the face of overwhelming odds, and with a few arms and scant supplies.

After him came Agramonte, but he died in a year, and then, when the rebel cause seemed to be prospering, General Gomez took command. He invaded the western part of the island, and almost reached Matanzas, but he, too, saw that he could not gain ground with unarmed men, and withdrew his forces. That was in 1876, and from that time the revolution waned until the treaty of El Zanjón in February, 1878.

Still there was not entire quiet. In the east end of Cuba General Maceo refused to recognize the treaty, and continued to fight for eleven months, only to fail in the end and be driven from Cuban soil.

The treaty concessions were by no means liberal enough to maintain order for any length of time. In 1889 General Garcia tried again. He had been captured in Cuba in 1875, and sent to a fortress in Spain. He shot himself while in prison, but the bullet failed, and when he recovered he made his escape and reached the United States.

Here he conferred with Jose Marti, President of the Cuban revolutionary party, 1895-96, and they planned another expedition to Cuba. They

landed and held their ground for six months, only to find that the country was not ripe for revolt. The Cubans, weary of continual turmoil and bloodshed, longed for quiet. At last Garcia was captured and sent once more to Spain.

From this time dates the Autonomist party, started by a group of men who maintained that experience would not justify further attempts to gain freedom for Cuba by force of arms, and that the island's hope lay in peaceful measures alone. The party gained a footing very rapidly; indeed, its existence and doctrine had much to do with the failure of General Garcia.

The Spirit of Liberty Breaks Forth Again.

Despite the efforts of the peace party, however, there were revolutionist leaders who were ready to try again. In 1884 Generals Gomez and Maceo visited the United States and Central America, with a view of preparing for another invasion. The movement was bitterly opposed by the Home-rule party in Cuba, and was abandoned. Small and ill-advised attempts at revolution followed from time to time after that, notably those headed by Limbana Sanchez, Benitez and Aguero.

The Home-rulers, in the meantime, were attempting to get what concessions they could from Spain by peaceful means. In 1890 they became restless again. The peace policy did not prosper. Cuba was growing uneasy again. The concessions, small and unsatisfactory at all times, began to be regarded as sops, which Spain distributed to maintain peace. They gave no promise of more liberal treatment in future. Men began to say that the native Cubans were cheated at the polls, and in time their representatives went to the Cortes no more.

For fourteen years the Home-rulers, led by such men as Govin Monture, Figueroa, Fernandez, De Castro and Siberga, had made most vigorous fights at the poles, and, notwithstanding Conservative frauds, had sent their best orators to the Spanish Parliament. It was to no purpose. The Home-rulers spoke to empty benches in Spain, and no party there recognized them. They succeeded, nevertheless, in forcing the Conservatives in Cuba to modify their policy, and aided manfully to complete the emancipation of the negro, following the Cuban Constitution, which declared that "all men are free." With the Economic party, they forced the government to celebrate the Spanish-American treaty, without which the fate of the island was sealed.

The Conservatives divided into two groups, one leaning toward union with the Cubans on economic questions, and hoping secretly for the annexation of Cuba by the United States. They were demoralized by the refusals of the Liberals from the polls, the Autonomists having declared that unless the obnoxious suffrage laws, which gave the Spaniards a sure majority at the polls, and disfranchised the Cuban rural population, were abolished, they would never go to Parliament again.

The Spanish Liberals really formed the Economist party, to obtain commercial concession, and secure a treaty with the United States, and by joining hands with the Cubans, they forced Spain's hand in the matter.

But this, like the other efforts to restore quiet and content, proved a failure. The Cubans complained that in return for the treaty, and its benefits to the island, Spain imposed new taxes, which more than counterbalanced all the good that had been done. Representatives were sent to the Spanish Parliament again, the Home-rule contingent demanding, as of old, electoral reform sufficient to guarantee just representation.

Preparations for the Coming Conflict.

It was then that the Cuban Revolutionary party began to gain prominence—the party which drew the sword in 1895—and asserted boldly that peaceful measures, looking to freedom and equality, had failed, and that Cuba must take up arms again, and drive the Spanish soldiers into the sea. Such talk was dangerous on Cuban soil. Leaders of the party, who were not already in exile, left Cuba, and began to plan from the outside, to raise money, to stir up the native population by secret agents—in a word, to prepare the island for one grand united effort to be free.

While this sentiment was being nursed at home and outside of Cuba, the Peace party was still at work on its own lines. In 1894 the reform wing of the Spaniards joined the Cubans in their fight against the Spanish Conservatives. They secured some reforms, but these, the Cubans say, are a mere farce, as the proposition now being passed upon is the establishment of a council in Cuba, in which the Spanish element will predominate. This council was to consist of thirty members, of which fifteen were to be appointed by the crown, and the remainder elected. The method of electing, the Cubans contend, would insure a majority for the Spaniards, and, in any event the council might be dissolved at pleasure by the Captain-General, Callejas. The Cubans want universal suffrage and have been

unable to secure it, as the Spaniards have insisted upon them having certain property qualifications.

On the 14th of March, 1895, Marti and Gomez, the Cuban exiles, with a handful of companions, landed at Baracoa, on the eastern coast of Cuba, and proclaimed the republic. The effect of this bold move was instantaneous. The news spread from end to end of the island, and although the friends of Cuba thought the moment ill-timed, hundreds of sympathizers flocked to the patriot standard. Like a prairie fire before a brisk breeze, the single spark of insurrection fired the dry tinder of the oppressed Cubans, and the rebellion grew in volume as it flew westward.

This is not Spain's first experience of the temper of her colony. For the past seventy years conspiracy, insurrection, rebellion, and red war have followed one another in endless progression. A few words will suffice to explain the cause leading up to the conflict of 1895-96.

Early History of Cuba.

Cuba became a possession of Spain by the right of discovery on Columbus' second voyage. He named it Juana, after the son of Ferdinand and Isabella, and it has successively been known as Juana, Fernandina, Santiago, Ave Maria and Cuba, the latter being the native name of the Queen of the Antilles. It was colonized by Spain, and its early history is a series of sacks and ravages by European foes. Not until the rule of Captain-General Las Casas, beginning 1790, did prosperity begin.

Under his guidance agriculture and commerce flourished, and the condition of the native population was ameliorated. The effect of his sagacious rule was felt for over thirty years, and when Napoleon deposed the royal family of Spain, every member of the Cabildo took oath to preserve the island for their monarchy, and, going even further, they declared war against the French conqueror. This much to show the instinctive feeling of the colony toward the mother country.

Spanish coffers were empty with the restoration of the Bourbons in the person of Ferdinand VII., and Spain's mistress looked with hungry eyes upon the rich island with her 1800 miles of seacoast, gemmed with prosperous ports and her plantations of indigo, sugar, tobacco and fruit. It was Fortunata's purse wherein Spain might dip her fingers and forever find it full to overflowing. With this discovery came oppressive taxation. With the gradual impoverishment of Spain came added demands. Then the

deprivation of all civil, political and religious liberty and the exclusion of Cubans from all public stations, and in order to enforce this the Cubans were taxed to support a standing army and navy—their gaolers.

With their oppression came their desire for liberty. In 1829 the Black Eagle conspiracy arose. The purpose of this was to throw off the Spanish yoke. It was suppressed, but was followed in 1840 by an insurrection of the colored population. After smouldering and blazing for awhile the fires of insurrection were smothered only to break out eight years later in a genuine conspiracy of the Cubans under the leadership of Narciso Lopez. This rebellion was quelled and Lopez fled. In 1850 he landed in Cuba with 600 men from the United States. He made a third attempt in 1851, and together with most of his companions, was captured and executed by the Spanish authorities.

Oppression Resulting from Heavy Taxes.

The Reformist party, which sprang up at this time, succeeded in getting an inquiry of the abuses at Madrid, with the result, however, of increased taxation. In 1868 the Advance party in Cuba rose in the district of Bayamo, and on October 10, 1868, signed a declaration of independence at Manzanillo. Their first successes were so great that almost all the Spanish-American republics recognized the insurgents as belligerents. After a war of ten years, that was confined to the mountainous regions east of the town of Puerto Principe, the rebellion was put down. To confine it to that locality the Spanish troops built a great fortified trench, known as La Trocha, across the entire width of the island, in the western portion of the State of Puerto Principe. It was here that Captain-General Campos drew up his forces last summer to prevent the eastward march of the insurgents, who were now heavily reinforced.

All during the summer of 1895 the insurgent leaders were organizing their forces and receiving supplies of arms and ammunition. The people were flocking to the standard of revolt, and during October, 1895, Gomez and Maceo, with ease, penetrated the lines of the Spanish captain-general, crossing La Trocha, and causing the regular troops to fall back to a line just east of Romedios; the insurgents still pushing on, this was followed by a retreat of Campos to Santa Clara, in the province of Santa Clara, still further west.

Gomez and Maceo were now in supreme authority, for Marti died just

as the command started west. This blow to the insurgent cause was more than offset by the character of the people among which they found themselves. Of all the provinces of Cuba, Santa Clara is the most outspoken and loyal to the cause of liberty; the ranks of Gomez and Maceo were increased by thousands of volunteers of an intelligence and physical strength superior even to those of Santiago. Horses were procured in abundance, and the bulk of the insurgent army was formed into a speedy and well-equipped cavalry; they were armed with rifles, and carried with them an abundance of ammunition.

Terrible Weapon of the Insurgents.

Each man also carried a machete, which is a long, heavily-weighted iron knife, used by the sugar planters to cut the cane, and by all travelers to open up paths through the heavy tropical underbrush; they are terrible weapons in the hands of the Cubans, and the Spanish troops fear them more than the rifles. The insurgents took no supply train with them. A stray pig or fowl supplied them with supper, while an ox meant dinner for a company. Thus prepared they turned their faces toward the setting sun and Havana.

All this while Campos, the Spanish general, was "concentrating," according to the official dispatches. In other words he was drawing dead lines across the island at points where he announced that he would bring the insurgents to a pitched battle. Each successive dead-line was further west than the one preceding it. And each time the insurgents slipped by the troops, leaving a harried country behind them. Railroads, bridges and roads were destroyed; plantations burned and store-houses empty. The troops, under the spur of necessity, followed as rapidly as possible, leaving the insurgents in possession of the country to the east.

In this way not only did the Cubans make this remarkable march westward, but they garrisoned it. In Santiago the insurgents kept the Spanish forces in the fortified cities, and in a short time two large expeditions successfully landed at that end of the island. One, armed with cannon, fired upon and crippled the "Nueva Espana," of the Spanish navy, while such leaders as Rabi, Martinez and Aguirre were fighting as valiantly there as Gomez and Maceo in the province of Matanzas.

Similar reports came from Puerto Principe and Santa Clara, showing that the insurgents had complete control of the interior of these provinces.

But Campos claimed that it was his plan to get the insurgents between his forces and Havana and crush them as a nut is crushed in a nut-cracker.

Then came decisive attacks by the insurgents. Campos was driven from pillar to post, changing his headquarters from Santa Clara to Cienfuegos, from Cienfuegos to Palmillas, from Palmillas to Colon, from Colon to Jovellanos, from Jovellanos to Limonare, from Limonare to Guanabana, and from Guanabana to Havana, where he was feted as a conqueror by the Spanish authorities, and where he received telegrams of congratulation from the Queen Regent of Spain and her Prime Minister.

The Insurgent General Threatens Havana.

Just prior to this noisy welcome, namely on December 24, 1895, General Maximo Gomez, at the head of 12,000 men, by a feint, turned the flank of the Spanish commander at Colon, and passing the sleepy old seaport of Matanzas, marched straight on to a point only fifty miles from Havana, Campos with all his 80,000 picked Spanish troops, to the contrary notwithstanding. Christmas and New Year's passed and the insurgents were still there, marching and countermarching in three columns, holding Spain at bay, and waiting for additional supplies of ammunition and arms before pushing on.

The grave question now was what the insurgents would do? Havana was in an agony of suspense and preparing for a siege. The loyalty of the citizens was questionable, as well as that of the Grande Civil, or local militia. Campos and all his troops seemed unable to cope with the situation. It was believed that should the insurgents push on and take Havana the defeat of Spain and the liberty of Cuba would arrive.

The next move on the part of Spain was to recall General Campos, his campaign in Cuba having proved a failure. He was replaced by General Weyler, whose tyrannous policy and barbarous cruelties, when previously commanding the Spanish forces in the island, are well known.

The steamer "Alfonso XIII." arrived at Havana February 10th, 1896, having on board General Valeriano Weyler, the new Captain-General of Cuba; Nicolau, Marquis of Teneriffe; and Generals Enrique, Barges, Ferderico Ochando, Miguel Melquiso, Marinues Ahumada, Luis Castellol, Sanchez Bernal and Juan Arolas, the latter being the hero of Jolo, Philippine Islands.

The entire city was brilliantly decorated in honor of the occasion,

and the bay was a splendid sight, all the warships and merchant craft present being decorated with bunting. The wharves were crowded with people at an early hour, and all the steamers and tugs were loaded with sightseers. The Chamber of Commerce, the Bourse, all the big commercial houses and government departments, the Canarian Association, General Weyler's countrymen and others, crowded upon the chartered steamers or about the landing-place.

The troops and volunteers were turned out to a man, together with the fire department and police, and for a long time no such brilliant display had been witnessed in Havana. Among the high military officers present were Generals Suarez Valdez, Pando, Marin and Navarro, Admiral Yanas and staff, Colonel Castanedo, Major Moriano and many others.

Welcome to the New Captain-General.

General Weyler was welcomed by the City Council on board the "Alfonso XIII." He was presented with an address of welcome and assurance of loyalty. At 11 o'clock the Captain-General came ashore and was received by General Marin and staff. The streets were packed with people, who displayed the greatest enthusiasm. In fact, rarely has a distinguished person been received so warmly as was General Weyler when he landed. There is no doubt that considerable real enthusiasm was manifested, in addition to the greetings which would naturally be bestowed upon the representative of Spain.

The advent of Weyler produced no perceptible change in the situation. The insurgents continued to land arms and ammunition secretly, and to carry on their peculiar mode of warfare. No great battles were fought, and in the majority of the skirmishes the Spanish troops were successful, it being apparently the policy of the rebels to worry and harass their enemy instead of coming to open conflict. It was the history of Cuban insurrection repeated—a work of devastation, a scattered warfare, an attempt by Spanish troops to rout or capture the insurgents, yet without success. Spain maintained a large army in Cuba which seemed to be incapable of bringing order out of confusion.

The most important events affecting the Cuban cause in 1897 were the deaths of the famous Cuban Generals, José and Antonio Maceo, both of whom were killed in battle. Each was a tower of strength to the cause of independence in Cuba, and with their death it was believed in Spanish

circles that a fatal blow had been struck to the cause of the independence of the island.

It is not surprising that there was great joy both in Havana and Madrid when it was reported that Antonio Maceo had fallen on the field of battle. The report was, however received with reserve, as this was the sixth time in which he had been reported killed. His ability to rise from death appeared to be like that of the fabled Phœnix, which sprang from its own ashes, and spread its wings with renewed youth and vigor. Soon the question agitated two continents: "Is Maceo really dead?" It was finally admitted that the great leader had come to an untimely death.

Rejoicing over Maceo's Death.

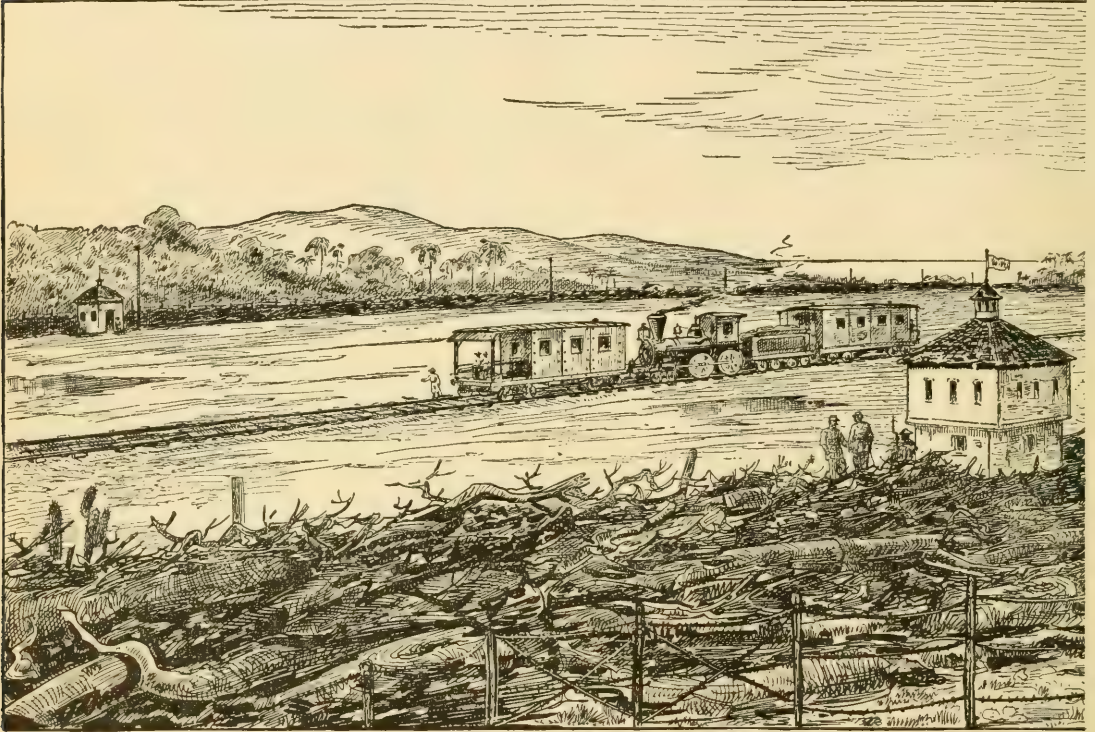
General Weyler, who was absent from Havana when Maceo's death was reported, immediately returned, arriving at half-past five in the afternoon. He rode into the city on horseback, accompanied by two squadrons of cavalry. His coming had been made known to the public, and large crowds gathered to welcome him. He was given a popular ovation from the time he reached the city limits until he arrived at the palace. At some places along the route, girls strewed flowers in his pathway, and he was in other ways treated as a popular hero.

The peculiar methods of warfare adopted by the Cuban insurgents led General Weyler to construct his famous barricade, known as the trocha. It has not been the plan of the Cuban army ever to risk a great battle against the immense army of Spain, for the reason that they were much fewer in number, and, for a long time, were but poorly equipped with arms and ammunition. Still, with their cavalry and scattered bands, they were able to occupy a large part of the island, and even to threaten the city of Havana.

General Weyler's plan was to construct a trocha, extending from a point on the north coast to the southern coast, thus dividing a small part of the island from the remainder. The western section, known as the Province of Pinar del Rio, could then, it was thought, be pacified, and the insurgents driven out. It would be impossible for them to pass the trocha, and they could be pursued and captured. The reader will be interested in a description of this formidable barricade.

The trocha is a cleared space, 150 to 200 yards wide, which stretches through what is apparently an impassable jungle for fifty miles. The

trees, which have been cut down in clearing this passage-way, have been piled up at each side of the cleared space, and laid in parallel rows, forming a barrier of tree trunks and roots and branches higher than a man's head. It would take a man some time to pick his way over these barriers, and a horse could no more do it than it could cross a jam of floating logs in a river. The object was to make the obstacles insurmountable to the



GENERAL WEYLER'S TROCHA ACROSS THE ISLAND OF CUBA.

insurgent cavalry, and to armed bodies of infantry, presenting an effectual check upon the transportation of artillery, and in fact upon all their offensive movements.

Between the fallen trees lies the single track of the military railroad, and on one side of that are the line of forts, and a few feet beyond them a maze of barbed wire. Beyond the barbed wire again is the other barrier of fallen trees, and the jungle. In its unfinished state, this is not an insurmountable barricade. Gomez crossed it by daylight with 600 men, and with but the loss of twenty-seven killed, and as many wounded. Where it has been completed, it is almost impossible to cross it, except at the sacrifice of a great loss of life.

The forts are of three kinds. They are best described as the forts, the block-houses and the little forts. A big fort consists of two stories, with a cellar below, and a watch-tower above. It is made of stone and adobe, and it is painted a glaring white. One of these is placed at intervals of every half mile along the trocha, and on a clear day the sentry in the watch-tower of each can see the three forts on either side.

Midway between the big forts, at a distance of a quarter of a mile from each, is a block-house of two stories, with the upper story of wood, overhanging the lower foundation of mud. These are placed at right angles to the railroad, instead of facing it, as do the forts.

Between each block-house and each fort are three little forts of mud and planks, surrounded by a ditch. They look something like a farmer's ice-house, as we see them at home, and they are about as hot inside as the other is cold. They hold five men, and are within hailing distance of one another. Back of them are three rows of stout wooden stakes, with barbed wire stretching from one row to the other, interlacing and crossing and running in and out above and below, like an intricate cats' cradle of wire.

Barbed Fences and Strong Forts.

One can judge how closely knit it is by the fact that to every twelve yards of posts there are four hundred and fifty yards of barbed fencing. The forts are most completely equipped in their way, and twelve men in the jungle would find it quite easy to keep twelve men securely imprisoned in one of them for an indefinite length of time.

The walls are about twelve feet high with a cellar below and a vault above the cellar. The roof of the vault forms a platform, around which the four walls rise to the height of a man's shoulder. There are loopholes for rifles in the sides of the vault and where the platform joins the walls. These latter allow the men in the fort to fire down almost directly upon the head of any one who might rush up close to the wall of the fort, and where, without these holes in the floor, it would be impossible to fire on him except by leaning far over the rampart.

Above the platform is an iron or zinc roof, supported by iron pillars, and in the centre of this is the watch-tower. The only approach to the fort is by a movable ladder, which hangs over the side like the gangway of a ship of war, and which can be raised by those on the inside by means of a rope suspended over a wheel in the roof. The opening in the wall at

the head of the ladder is closed at the time of an attack by an iron platform, to which the ladder leads, and which also can be raised by a pulley. The Spanish hope to have calcium lights in the watch-towers of the forts with sufficient power to throw a search-light over a quarter of a mile, or to the next block-house, and so light the trocha by night as well as day. With their immense army it would not be difficult to do this.

A Formidable Barrier.

As a further protection against the insurgents the Spaniards have distributed a number of bombs along the trocha. These are placed at those points in the trocha where the jungle is less thickly grown, and where the insurgents might be expected to pass. Each bomb is fitted with an explosive cap, and five or six wires are attached to this and staked down on the ground. Any one stumbling over one of these wires explodes the bomb, and throws a charge of broken iron to a distance of fifty feet. This, in brief, was General Weyler's scheme for preventing the insurgents roaming at will from one end of the Island to the other; but to make the plan effective he would have to construct several trochas, which would be an almost impossible task. The length of time required for constructing the trocha, and the necessity of watching it at every point, has led military officers to doubt whether the barricade does not cost more than it is worth.

Much excitement was caused throughout the United States by Weyler's imprisonment of American citizens, alleging that they were giving aid and encouragement to the Cuban forces. One of the prisoners, whose case excited universal interest, was Dr. Ricardo Ruiz, who, it was reported, had been murdered in a dungeon at Guanabacoa. He was for five years a resident of Philadelphia, having come from Cuba in 1875, at the time when the former war was rendering the Island a place almost uninhabitable, bringing with him letters of introduction from well-known parties in Cuba. After having practiced his profession of dentistry for two years in Philadelphia he returned to Cuba, but previous to this, after five years' residence in the United States, he secured naturalization papers and became an American citizen. He settled in Guanabacoa, and married a lady to whom he had been engaged before leaving the Island. All accounts go to show that he was a man of peaceable disposition.

He was arrested and confined in prison on suspicion of sympathizing

with the insurgents, where he remained two years, when his death was reported. It was claimed by his friends that he had died from violence, and that his imprisonment was illegal, as he had never had an impartial trial. These reports created indignation in the United States, which the Spanish authorities endeavored to allay by affirming that an examination after death showed that Dr. Ruiz died from natural causes.

Early in May, 1897, President McKinley sent Hon. W. J. Calhoun, of Illinois, as a special commissioner to Cuba, who was charged primarily with helping Consul-General Lee to investigate the circumstances surrounding the death of Dr. Albert Ruiz in a Spanish prison. The Spanish government was represented by Dr. Congosto, Spanish Consul at Philadelphia.

Seeking the Cause of Death.

Ruiz died, according to the surgeons, from congestion of the brain, caused by a blow or blows. When General Lee and Mr. Calhoun visited the jail in Guanabacoa, they were shown the cell in which the Spanish say that Ruiz died. The guard explained to General Lee and Mr. Calhoun that he heard thumping on the inside of the door, and when he opened it and went in, Ruiz was running at the heavy door, and butting it with his head. Ruiz had only one wound on the top of his head. Had he butted this door, as the jailor says he did, his scalp must necessarily have been lacerated in several places.

The American representatives decided that they would not ask a single question of the guards if they are called, feeling it absurd to waste time on them under the circumstances. Dr. Congosto was told plainly that the testimony of these men would not be received in any court in the United States, unless they were prisoners, and chose to speak in their own defence. The Americans asked for the official record of the arrest of Ruiz, and the charges made against him. Dr. Congosto said that the record was in Madrid. It was not furnished. The Spanish and American officials came to no agreement concerning the cause of death.

Almost immediately came a report that another American citizen had been sentenced to imprisonment for life, and that, too, in direct violation of our treaty with Spain, which has been in operation for a hundred years, and, therefore, has all the sanction of time-honored precedent. This treaty specifies the tribunal before which a person charged with treason shall be tried, and it was maintained that the provisions of the compact had been

unjustly set aside through the operation of martial law, by which General Weyler was attempting to govern Cuba.

The Committee on Foreign Relations in the United States Senate passed a resolution demanding the immediate release of Julio Sanguilly, who had been sentenced to life imprisonment. Hot words were uttered on the floor of the Senate, and much bitter feeling was engendered in the debate, which followed the introduction of the resolution. Notwithstanding the request from the State Department to suspend action in the case for a few days, the Senators took the question in their own hands, and proceeded to act. A multitude of eager listeners were present.

Animated Debate in the United States Senate.

Senator Daniel, of Virginia, took the floor in behalf of the adoption of the resolution. He said: "Two years ago yesterday Julio Sanguilly, an American citizen, was thrown into prison. Two years have gone by, and this government has done practically nothing for this citizen. Great Britain would have released him as soon as one of her battleships could reach Havana. He has been brutally treated and condemned on unsworn testimony before military tribunals; this country and all civilization having been disgraced by the treatment meted out to this unfortunate man. Every citizen of this country would have patriotically applauded the President if he had sent a fleet of American battleships and compelled the release of this American citizen, whose country has been insulted by the treatment accorded to him and to our representative in Cuba."

Senator Gray, of Delaware, said he was informed that Sanguilly's counsel had withdrawn his appeal to Madrid in order to facilitate his release. Thereupon, with increased force and manifestly increased anger, Senator Daniel said: "If that is true it is a humiliation to the United States that one of her citizens has been compelled by sickness and poverty, and delay on the part of this government, to withdraw his appeal for justice in order to secure his release from prison. It means that he has concluded that the United States has abandoned her citizen, her legal child, and that he despairs of justice. His appeal should not be withdrawn. The people of this country should compel his unconditional release."

It was at this point that Senator Frye, of Maine, electrified the Senate by saying: "If Sanguilly's counsel has withdrawn the appeal of his client, he has done an unjust act which is inexcusable. For, by that withdrawal,

he leaves Sanguilly a convicted criminal, liable to imprisonment for life, and surrenders for Sanguilly and for his family all claims for damages against Spain. He surrenders all that Spain has contended for. Here we are contending that Sanguilly has been unjustly treated, and that all international law has been violated in his case when his discouraged counsel withdraws his appeal for justice. If I had my way a ship of war would start immediately to Havana and deliver him."

The outbreak in the galleries was such as has not been paralleled in years. They were filled with Daughters of the American Revolution, and they would not be quieted. Messengers and doorkeepers warned them, and finally had to force some of them into their seats that order might be restored. Their strong sympathy for Cuba was much in evidence.

Order for the Prisoner's Release.

Later in the day it was announced that the government at Madrid, concluding that discretion was sometimes better than valor, had ordered General Weyler to release Sanguilly. This had a tendency to somewhat allay the excitement, yet a very uneasy feeling and excited state of the public mind was apparent, which a breath might inflame into a wild burst of indignation.

General Sanguilly soon arrived at Key West. He was made a cripple by the former war, and he now appeared to be in an enfeebled condition. Before he descended the gang-plank he was lifted up on the shoulders of friends and conveyed to a carriage. In reply to a request for a speech, he said he was too fatigued after a rough sea voyage, but thanked his countrymen for the hearty welcome accorded, which he did not take for himself, but, he said, as an evidence of the loyalty to the cause dear to the heart of every Cuban.

On March 1st the President transmitted to Congress important dispatches from Consul-General Lee, including telegrams relating to the case of Charles Scott. These awakened unusual interest in the Senate. On February 20th Mr. Lee telegraphed as follows to the State Department: "Charles Scott, a citizen of the United States, arrested at Regla. No charge given. He has been without communication in jail at Havana 264 hours. I cannot stand another Ruiz murder, and have demanded his release. How many war vessels at Key West or within reach, and will they be ordered here at once if necessary to sustain demand?"

On the 23d General Lee said in a cable message: "Situation simple. Experience at Guanabacoa made it my duty to demand, before too late, that another American who has been incommunicado (without communication with friends) 264 hours, be released from said incommunicado, and did so in courteous terms. If you support it and Scott is so released, the trouble will terminate. If you do not I must depart. All others arrested with Scott have been put in communication. Why should the only American in the lot not be? He has been incommunicado now 338 hours."

Later on the same day, the 23d of February, Mr. Lee wired: "Demand complied with. Scott released from incommunicado to-day, on demand, after fourteen days' solitary confinement in cell five feet by eleven, damp, water on bottom of cell. Not allowed anything to sleep on or chair. Was charged with having Cuban postage stamps in the house. Scott says he went always twelve hours without water; once two days. He was an employee of the American Gas Company."

General Lee's determination to see that every American citizen in Cuba should have his rights fully protected, met with a hearty response from all classes of the American people.

The Cuban General Rivera.

The veteran, who succeeded General Antonio Maceo in the command of the Cuban forces in the province of Pinar del Rio, was General Ruiz Rivera, and was born in Puerto Rico in 1847. General Rivera was the son of a wealthy Spanish family; his father was a Spanish colonel. Young Rivera was sent to Spain to be educated as a lawyer. When the revolution of 1868 broke out he was studying law in Barcelona; he gave up his college career and sailed for Cuba.

Rivera fought valiantly; he displayed at the head of his troops remarkable ability. When the ten years were ended, in 1878, he stood out with Maceo in his refusal to accept the terms of the treaty. He left the island without surrendering, and before going he handed his machete to Colonel Figueredo, his faithful friend, with this injunction: "This is my true weapon. If I ever return to Cuba to fight for her freedom, you shall return it to me. If you ever fight with it, and are forced to surrender or leave the fields of Cuba, break it in twain and bury it. Let it never fall into the hands of the enemy."

Rivera saw the war renewed sixteen years after; as soon as he was

called to his post he left Honduras, where he was prosperous in business; he took an expedition to Maceo, which materially strengthened the patriots in the west. His long experience and his splendid qualifications made him conspicuous. He was a man of great personal magnetism, and a natural successor to his life-long companion, General Antonio Maceo.

It was the fate of General Rivera soon to be captured, the story of which is dramatic. General Hernandez Velasco left San Cristobal under secret orders at noon March 18th, with the Castillo Reina battalion and two field pieces and pitched his camp amid the Brujito Hills. The insurgents attacked the regulars from the very outset of the advance. The Spanish column marched upon Perico Pozo, where General Ruiz Rivera awaited them in a strongly entrenched position. The result of the engagement that ensued was the defeat of the insurgents and the capture of General Rivera.

Rivera opened fire immediately on seeing the head of the column. Colonel Jose Roco advanced with the extreme vanguard, Major Sanchez Bernal leading another division under the protection of artillery, which shelled the trenches held by Rivera, who was already wounded in the thigh.

Capture of the Insurgent Leader.

One company of the cavalry galloped forward, capturing the trenches and seizing as prisoners five men who lay severely mutilated by the shells. Colonel Bacallao, on learning that Rivera had been wounded, hurried to the trenches, and begged the soldiers not to kill him. Rivera and Colonel Bacallao were taken into the presence of General Velasco, who shook hands with Rivera and introduced him to the officers of his staff, giving instructions that the first thing to be done was to give him surgical relief. Lieutenant Terry and Colonel Bacallao were also wounded in a fight at the same place on March 15th.

The Castillo battalion secured important documents as well as the arms and money of General Ruiz Rivera. The money consisted mostly of American gold coin. A number of splendid watches were left with General Velasco. The villagers of San Cristobal, who went out to receive the small column of Spanish troops, enthusiastically cheered the victors.

General Rivera, who remained quietly in prison, eulogized the escort of Spanish soldiers. He said the troops treated him with the greatest consideration. He also said the families of the insurgents in the camp of the Cubans were in a critical situation. They suffered greatly from

hunger, and were compelled to go out in search of vegetables whenever it was possible to avoid the Spanish troops. The insurgents were well supplied with meat, but had no spices.

General Rivera would say nothing concerning the war or Cuban political matters. When asked his name by General Velasco, Rivera replied, and made the following request: "Give me the honors of war, and stretch out to me your hand." Rivera afterwards conversed with some of the chief officers, and offered them tips for services rendered. Velasco, noticing this, said: "Soldiers need not money, but honor, which they have."

One of the shells exploded in the insurgent camp, wounding many members of Rivera's staff. Rivera himself received a Mauser ball, which caused three serious wounds in the thigh. The moment the Spanish infantry entered the trenches Colonel Bacallao raised General Rivera on his shoulders as if to carry him off. After his capture General Rivera, speaking of the Spanish soldiers, said: "They have treated me very carefully." He complained much of the pain of his wounds.

Congratulations from the Queen of Spain.

Captain-General Weyler received the news of Rivera's capture at Cienfuegos, where the intelligence was loudly cheered. The Captain-General was described as "satisfied" with the result, and received cablegrams of congratulations from the Spanish Minister of War and the Spanish Premier, who congratulated him in the name of the Queen of Spain. Lieutenant Henry Terry died from his wounds. He was a naturalized American.

The long-standing case of Cuba again came to the front in the United States on May 17th. President McKinley gave the first indication of his policy by a special message asking Congress to appropriate \$50,000 for the relief of suffering Americans in Cuba. The President's message read thus:

"Official information from our Consuls in Cuba establishes the fact that a large number of American citizens in the island are in a state of destitution, suffering for want of food and medicines. This applies particularly to the rural districts of the central and eastern parts.

"The agricultural classes have been forced from their farms into the nearest towns, where they are without work or money. The local authorities of the several towns, however kindly disposed, are unable to relieve the needs of their own people, and are altogether powerless to help our citizens. The latest report of Consul-General Lee estimates that 600 to

800 are without means of support. I have assured him that provision would be made at once to relieve them. To that end I recommend that Congress make an appropriation of not less than \$50,000, to be immediately available for use under the direction of the Secretary of State.

"It is desirable that a part of the sum which may be appropriated by Congress should, in the discretion of the Secretary of State, also be used for the transportation of American citizens who, desiring to return to the United States, are without means to do so."

Two phases of the subject were presented. First came the question of relief to destitute and starving Americans in Cuba. This was presented in the President's message as soon as the session opened. Immediately following the reading of the message, Mr. Davis, Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations, presented a favorable report on the joint resolution originally introduced by Mr. Gallinger, appropriating \$50,000 for the relief of American citizens in Cuba. There was only one brief speech—from Mr. Gallinger—and then the resolution went through by unanimous vote, there being no response to the call for nays. It took exactly eighteen minutes for the reading of the message, the presentation of the committee report, the brief speech and the final passage of the resolution.

Spirited Speeches on the Cuban Question.

The second phase of the Cuban subject came up in the Senate when the Morgan resolution, declaring that a state of war exists in Cuba, was taken up. Mr. Wellington, the new Senator from Maryland, came forward for his initial speech in the Senate, making a vigorous protest against the resolution, on the ground that it threatened war with Spain. He said the first duty of Congress was to pass the tariff bill. The senator condemned "jingoism," and gave his endorsement to President Cleveland's conservatism on the Cuban question.

Senator Daniel, of Virginia, said the Senator from Maryland (Wellington) had "taken a shot at creation" while presumably discussing the pending resolution. He had gone into the tariff, currency, the late and the present administrations in their various ramifications. Mr. Daniel asserted that the Maryland Senator entirely misapprehended the resolution in declaring that it involved hostility to Spain. In sarcastic tones Mr. Daniel referred to Mr. Wellington's statement, that some debt of gratitude existed, because Spain had produced Christopher Columbus. "It were

better had there been no Columbus," said Mr. Daniel, "if America was to continue a savagery that prevailed here before the country was discovered." The Senator then took up the legal questions involved in the recognition of belligerency.

After concluding his legal argument on the powers of Congress and the President, Mr. Daniel branched to the general subject of Cuba, and again aroused the keenest attention by his vigorous words. The diplomacy of Spain had succeeded for two and one-half years, he said, in blinding American diplomacy in the belief that war did not exist in Cuba. But the world knew that war existed there, high-handed, red-handed, bloody, cruel war. It is a war in which Spain employs more troops than England employed in seeking to put down the American Revolution.

No Act of Hostility toward Spain.

And yet, Senators were met with the statement that a recognition of a state of war in Cuba would be inimical to Spain. He denied that the recognition of an existing fact could be construed as a hostile act, but, in any event, the fact should be recognized, and the great influence of the United States thrown toward the cause of civilized and Christian usage. It might subject some American vessels to search, but this would be a small matter compared with the results achieved. It might give Spain a right to blockade Cuba, but in that Spain would suffer more than the United States.

"It is said this means war," continued Mr. Daniel. "I deny it. If Spain should declare war against us, because we recognized the belligerency of her former subjects, who had carried on a war for two and one-half years, she would have an unjust cause of complaint and war against us, and we will have a just cause of complaint and war against her. I do not wish to see the American people involved in war. I look upon war as one of the greatest calamities that can befall a people. But it is a greater calamity for the high public spirit of a great nation to be so deadened that it can look upon murder and arson and pillage with indifference, and for the public spirit of that nation to be so dead as to delay one instant in doing an act of justice because of fear of war."

During the debate, Senator Mason, of Illinois, made a bold, patriotic and eloquent speech, denouncing Spanish atrocities in Cuba. The inhuman barbarities inflicted upon innocent people, the savage attacks made upon

them, and their expulsion from their own homes, condemned to suffering and starvation, were depicted in burning language. Among other things, he said: "Here is the proof in the communication of the President, stating that 800 citizens of the United States have been driven from their homes, and are destitute. Who forced them there? Was it the insurgents? Then, there is war in Cuba. Was it the Spaniards? Then, if there is no war, there ought to be, and with us. Eight hundred Americans driven from home starving, and still some Senators say it is not much of a war."

Excitement in the Senate Chamber.

Again and again the galleries broke into loud applause, as the sturdy Senator expressed in eloquent terms the feeling of the American people. The excitement was at white heat; handkerchiefs waved; cheers burst forth that could not be repressed.

Senator Foraker, of Ohio, produced an unpublished letter of Secretary Olney, addressed to the Spanish Government in April, 1896, in which the President offered to Spain the mediation of the United States to bring the war to a close, which was firmly refused by the Spanish Government, who stated, through their minister at Washington, that there was no effectual way to pacify the Cubans, except upon the condition that they should first submit to the mother country.

Mr. Foraker's speech was delivered with much warmth and earnestness. Several of his well-rounded periods, in which sympathy was expressed with the struggling Cubans, and in which the cruelties and barbarities of the Spanish military forces were denounced, called forth demonstrations from the galleries.

The Morgan resolution declared: "That a condition of public war exists between the Government of Spain and the Government proclaimed, and for some time maintained by force of arms, by the people of Cuba, and that the United States of America shall maintain a strict neutrality between the contending parties, according to each all the rights of belligerents in the ports and territory of the United States."

The resolution received in its favor the votes of 18 Republicans, 19 Democrats, and 4 Populists; 12 Republicans and 2 Democrats voted against it—a total vote of 41 to 14.

Meanwhile the struggle in Cuba went on with varying success. The efforts of the Spanish army of 200,000 men were unequal to the subjugation

tion of the insurgents. On July 28, 1897, Havana's outposts were again attacked by a large body of insurgents, who, before the Spanish troops could be gathered to resist, had swept through the suburbs, carrying all before them. They used rapid-firing guns and a large quantity of dynamite. There was an inclination among the Spanish officials in Havana to deny the fact that Cubans had invaded the forts and swept into Havana limits, yet the path left by the insurgents through the suburbs southeast of the city could be plainly traced.


At the first sounds of firing the Spanish soldiers in the city and suburbs sprang to arms. They proceeded hurriedly to the southeastern part of the city, from where the rattle of musketry, followed by the boom of heavy guns or dynamite, could be heard plainly all over Havana. Then the sound of firing increased, and finally, after a few hours, died away, showing that the insurgents had retired.

Several wounded Spanish soldiers were brought into Havana and removed to hospitals after the engagement, and it was reported that several were killed. The reticence of Spanish officials prevented any knowledge of the result of the attack becoming general. It is a fact, however, that great damage was done by the insurgents on their bold raid, and that a considerable quantity of dynamite was used.

There was great excitement in Havana during the attack. Hundreds, aroused by the heavy firing, poured into the streets, and the word passed along, "The rebels have attacked the city!" created almost a panic in some quarters. This attack on Havana was not unexpected. For weeks past the rebels had been within sight of the capital, and had practically moved without interference. Captain-General Weyler left Havana for Matanzas, and the belief was expressed that the knowledge by the insurgents of this intention on his part led to the attack.

CHAPTER XLI.

STORY OF HAWAII

 THE Hawaiian Islands, the most important group in the North Pacific, were discovered early by the Spaniards, according to tradition, and were rediscovered by Captain Cook in 1778. He was received by the natives with many demonstrations of astonishment and delight; and offerings and prayers were presented to him by their priest in one of the temples; and though in the following year he was killed by a native when he landed at Hawaii, his bones were preserved by the priest and continued to receive offerings and homage from the people until the abolition of idolatry.

At the time of Cook's visit each island had its chief. On the death of the chief who ruled Hawaii at that time there succeeded one named Kamehameha, who appears to have been a man of quick perception and great force of character. When Vancouver visited the island in 1792, this chief being desirous of possessing a vessel on the European model, the keel of one was laid down for him. Ten or twelve years later Mr. Turnbull found him with twenty vessels of from twenty-five to fifty tons, which traded amongst the islands, and he afterward purchased others from foreigners. Having encouraged a warlike spirit in his people and introduced firearms, Kamehameha attacked and overcame the chiefs of the other islands one after another, until he finally became the undisputed master of the whole group.

He encouraged trade with foreigners, and derived from its profits a large increase of revenue as well as the means of consolidating his power. He died in 1819 and was succeeded by his son, a mild and well-disposed prince, but destitute of his father's energy. One of the first acts of Kamehameha II. was to abolish idolatry throughout the islands. Some disturbances were caused thereby, but the insurgents were defeated and the peace of the islands continued for a long time.

In 1820 missionaries arrived from America and commenced their labors at Honolulu. A short time afterwards the British Government presented a

small schooner to the king, and this afforded an opportunity for the Rev. William Ellis, the well-known English missionary, to visit Honolulu, along with a number of Christian natives from the Society Islands. Finding the language of the two groups nearly the same, Mr. Ellis, who had spent several years in the southern islands, was able to assist the American missionaries in reducing the Hawaiian language to a written form. In 1824 the king and queen of these islands paid a visit to England and both died there of measles.

For many years the Hawaiians have continued to advance steadily in intelligence, resources and civilization, but their progress has been at times interrupted by the conduct of the officers of foreign powers. On one occasion a British officer went so far as to take possession of Oahu and establish a commission for its government; and French officers abrogated the laws, dictated treaties, and by force of arms established the Roman Catholic religion in the country. The act of the British officer was disavowed by his superiors as soon as known; and these outrages led to a representation on the part of the native sovereign to the governments of Great Britain, France and the United States of America, and the independence of the islands was guaranteed by these powers in 1844. Kalakaua became the reigning monarch and was elected king by ballot in 1874.

A New Ruler of Hawaii.

King Kalakaua died in San Francisco, January 20, 1891. His visit to this country was on account of his health. He was a great traveler. He came to this country in 1876, and visited most of the principal cities. It was his travels and extravagance which caused the financial troubles that led to a change in the form of government. Princess Liliuokalani succeeded her brother and became Queen of the Hawaiians. She proved herself to be an erratic and self-willed ruler, and was constantly at variance with her legislators and advisors.

Early in February, 1893, the question of the annexation of Hawaii was brought to the attention of Congress, accompanied with news of a revolution in the islands. On January 15th the Queen tried to get the Cabinet to sign a new constitution that disfranchised all foreigners and put the whole government in the hands of the native politicians. The ministers refused, and when threatened by the Queen, fled for their lives. They returned later and induced the Queen to postpone her stratagem. There was a

public meeting in front of the palace. The Queen announced the failure of her plans, and a native orator demanded the lives of the ministers.

Early in the evening citizens met and formed a committee of public safety. On January 16th the United States steamship "Boston" landed three hundred men fully armed. They marched to the office of the Consul General of the United States. The marines were sent to the American Legation, while the sailors, with two Gatling guns, camped for a time on private grounds. The committee of public safety rapidly completed its organization, and made arrangements for the proclamation of a provisional government and its protection by armed force.

Proposed Treaty of Annexation.

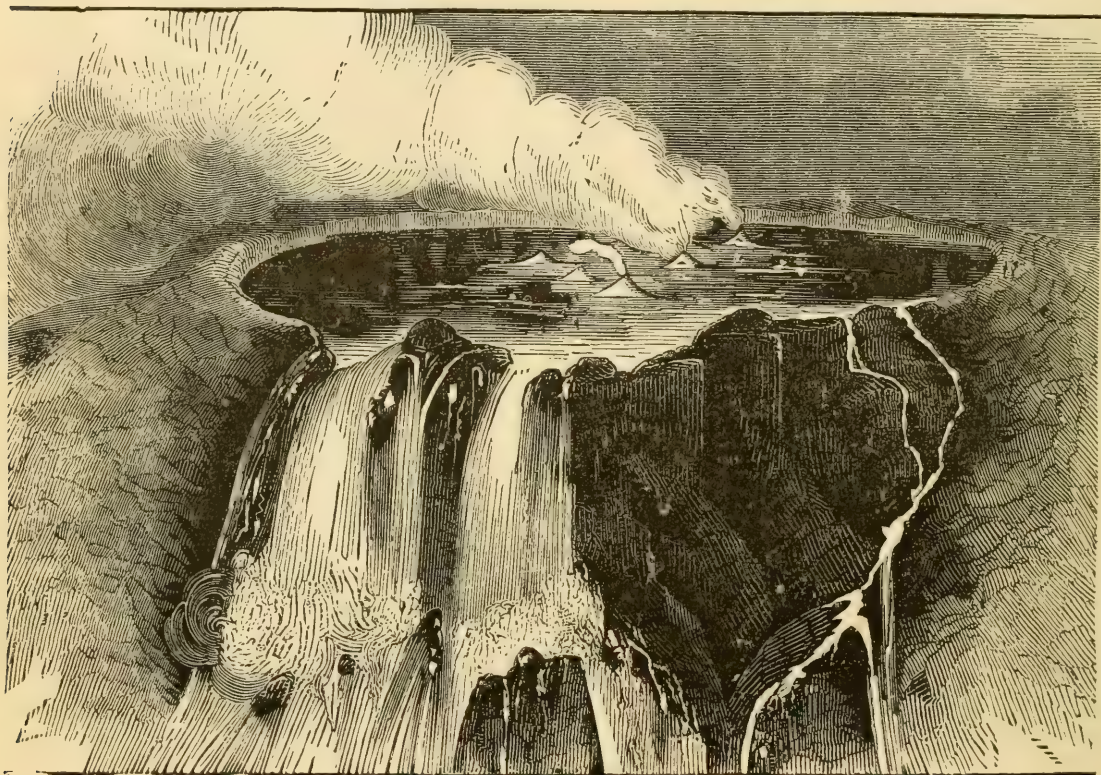
Commissioners soon arrived in Washington to conduct negotiations with our government with a view of forming a protectorate of the islands or annexing them to the United States. A treaty of annexation was concluded between Secretary of State Foster, and the commissioners, and on January 21st was transmitted to the United States Senate. No action with a view to annexation was taken by Congress. The treaty was withdrawn by President Cleveland when he came into his second term of office, but was again sent to the Senate by President McKinley soon after his inauguration, on March 4, 1897.

The physical aspects of the islands are rugged, uneven, and in many places barren and rocky. Many craters of extinct volcanoes are found in several of the group.

The form of the volcano named Mauna Loa, in the island of Hawaii, is a flattened dome, and this is its most remarkable feature. The idea of a volcano is so generally connected with the figure of a cone, that the mind at once conceives of a lofty sugar loaf ejecting fire, red-hot stones, and flowing lavas. But in place of slender walls around a deep crater, which the shaking of an eruption may tumble in, the summit of the Hawaiian volcano is nearly a plane, in which the crater, though six miles in circuit, is like a small quarry hole, the ancient orifice being not less than twenty-four miles in circumference.

A violent eruption of Mauna Loa took place in the year 1843, which is thus described by the Rev. Titus Coan: "On the 10th of January, just at the dawn of day, we discovered a rapid disgorgement of liquid fire from near the summit of Mauna Loa, at an elevation of about fourteen thousand

feet above the sea. This eruption increased from day to day for several weeks, pouring out vast floods of fiery lava, which spread down the side of the mountain, and flowed in broad rivers, throwing a terrific glare upon the heavens, and filling those lofty mountainous regions with a sheen of light. This spectacle continued till the molten flood had progressed twenty or thirty miles down the side of the mountain, with an average breadth of



TERRIBLE ERUPTION OF THE HAWAIIAN VOLCANO MAUNA LOA.

one and a half miles, and across a high plain which stretches between the bases of Mauna Loa and Mauna Kea.

“After many weeks another missionary and myself penetrated through a deep forest, stretching between Hilo and the mountain, and reached the molten stream, which we followed to the top of the mountain, and found its source in a vast crater, amidst eternal snow. Down the sides of the mountain the lava had now ceased to flow upon the surface; but it had formed for itself a subterranean duct, at the depth of fifty or one hundred feet. This duct was vitrified, and down this fearful channel a river of fire was rushing at the rate of fifteen or twenty miles an hour, from the summit to

the foot of the mountain. This subterranean stream we saw distinctly through several large apertures in the side of the mountain, while the burning flood rushed fearfully beneath our feet.

“Our visit was attended with peril and inconceivable fatigue, but we never regretted having made it, and we returned deeply affected with the majesty, the sublimity, the power, and the love of that God who ‘looketh on the earth and it trembleth, who toucheth the hills and they smoke; whose presence melteth the hills, and whose look causeth the mountains to flow down.’ ” What an impressive sight this must have been!

A Volcano with Two Craters.

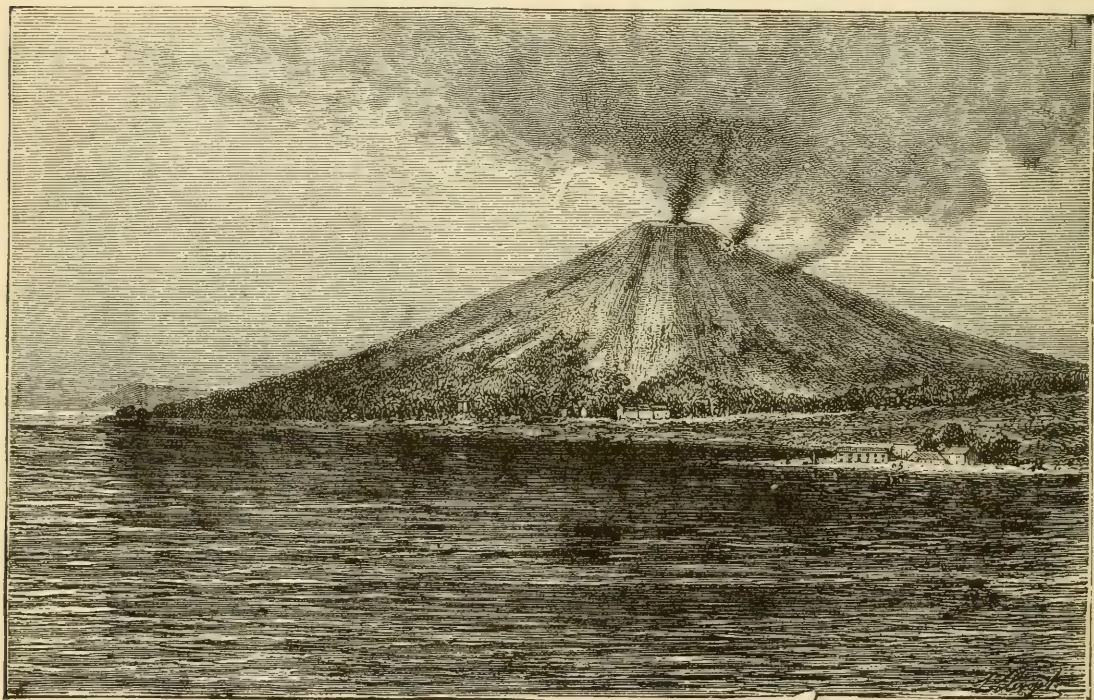
Mauna Loa presents the curious feature of having two distinct and seemingly unconnected craters—one on the summit of the mountain, and another on its flanks, at a much lower level. This last is named Kirauea, and is perhaps the most remarkable volcanic crater in the world. It was visited by Mr. Ellis, a missionary to those parts, who has given an account of it in his missionary tour. The approach to it lies over a vast tract completely covered with old lava; and Mr. Ellis describes his visit to it in the following terms:

“The tract of lava resembles in appearance an inland sea, bounded by distant mountains. Once it had certainly been in a fluid state, but appeared as if it had become suddenly petrified, or turned into a glassy stone, while its agitated billows were rolling to and fro. Not only were the large swells and hollows distinctly marked, but in many places the surface of those billows was covered by a smaller ripple, like that observed on the surface of the sea at the springing up of a breeze, or the passing currents of air, which produce what the sailors call a cat’s paw. After walking some distance over the ground, which in several places sounded hollow under our feet, we at length came to the edge of the great crater, where a spectacle sublime, and even appalling, presented itself before us.

“Immediately before us yawned an immense gulf, in the form of a crescent, about two miles in length, from north-east to south-west; nearly a mile in width, and apparently 800 feet deep. The bottom was covered with lava, and the south-western and northern parts of it were one vast flood of burning matter, in a state of terrific ebullition, rolling to and fro its fiery surges and flaming billows. Fifty-one conical islands, of varied form and size, containing as many craters, rise either round the edge, or

from the surface of the burning lake; twenty-two constantly emitted columns of grey smoke, or pyramids of brilliant flame; and several of these at the same time vomited from their ignited mouths streams of lava, which rolled in blazing torrents down their black indented sides into the boiling mass below."

This great crater was also visited by Messrs. Dana and Wilkes, of the United States' exploring expedition. They describe the light from the glowing lava to be so intense as to form rainbows on the passing rain-



THE GRAND MAUNA LOA IN ACTION.

clouds. The lava appears almost as liquid as water, and its surface is agitated by waves resembling those of the sea, and breaking, like them, upon the shore formed by the bordering terraces of solid lava. Sometimes they rise to a height of between sixty and seventy feet. The lava, thus tossed into the air, cools in its descent, and falls solidified on the surface of the molten lake, like pieces of broken ice.

One peculiarity of this volcano is its tendency to throw out its lava in jets to an enormous height. The lava seems to be first forced up in the interior of the mountain, nearly to the top of the great crater; but, instead of overflowing its brim, it opens a passage through the sides of

the cone at a considerably lower elevation, so that the pressure of the liquid in the interior forces it from the orifice in a jet, whose height is in proportion to that of the inner column.

The lava-jets thrown up from Mauna Loa, during a great eruption in 1852, are estimated to have reached a height of 500 feet—those of some later eruptions double that height. The lava, as it ascends, is described as being white-hot; but, in its descent, it acquires a blood-red tint, and it comes down with a fearful noise. The quantities of lava ejected during some of the recent eruptions have been enormous. One stream is described as having traveled fifty miles, with an average breadth of three miles. A great stream, which burst forth from the side of the mountain in 1855, reached a distance of sixty miles from its source—burning its way through the forests, and advancing at the rate of about a mile in a fortnight, leaving a trail of devastation to mark its course.

A Mountain of Fire Belching Flames.

In 1859 this volcano was again in vigorous action, throwing up intermitting jets of lava to the estimated height of 800 or 1,000 feet. From this great fiery fountain, the lava flowed down in numerous streams, spreading over a width of five or six miles. One stream, probably formed by the junction of several smaller, attained a height of from twenty to twenty-five feet, and a breadth of about an eighth of a mile. Great stones were also thrown up along with the jet of lava, and the volume of smoke, composed probably of fine volcanic dust, is said to have risen to the height of 10,000 feet.

An eruption, described as having been of still greater violence, took place in 1865, characterized by similar phenomena, particularly the throwing up of jets of lava. This fiery fountain is said to have continued to play without intermission for twenty days and nights, varying only as respects the height to which the jet arose, which is said to have ranged between 100 and 1,000 feet, the mean diameter of the jet being about 100 feet. This eruption was accompanied by explosions so loud as to have been heard at a distance of forty miles. A cone of about 300 feet in height, and about a mile in circumference, was accumulated round the orifice whence the jet ascended. It was composed of solid matters ejected with the lava, and it continued to glow like a furnace, notwithstanding its exposure to the air. The current of lava on this occasion flowed to a dis-

tance of thirty-five miles, burning its way through the forests, and filling the air with smoke and flames from the ignited timber. The glare, from the glowing lava and the burning trees together, was discernible by night at a distance of 200 miles from the island.

In the early part of 1887 Mauna Loa was again in action, presenting startling spectacles similar to those just described. It is literally a mountain of fire, roaring and thundering, and belching out lurid flames and immense rivers of lava. This is one of the amazing phenomena which have so long rendered the group of the Hawaiian Islands an object of surpassing interest to the whole civilized world. Here we find one of the great breathing places of the inside world, that tremendous furnace upon which we live. What gigantic forces, what red hot, burning materials, what awful abysses of flame and fury this world of ours holds in its deep, mysterious and unknown recesses!

A Strange Superstition of Olden Times.

In olden times the Hawaiians believed that in the terrible abode of Mauna Loa dwelt their great goddess "Pél," who sported with her attendant demons among the sulphurous waves. There is a curious deposit found in the crevices of the vast lava-hill below the crater, which is still called "Pélé's hair." It is of a yellowish-brown color, like coarse spun glass. During an eruption, when the fire-fountains play to a great height, and the lava is thrown about in all directions, the wind catches it and blows it out in long thin threads, which stick to projecting points, and thus this curious-looking substance is formed.

There have been many terrible earthquakes in Hawaii, some of which are remembered by the present inhabitants. In 1868 a series of earthquakes began in the month of March, becoming more frequent and startling from day to day, till, as one lady aptly expressed it, the island quivered like the lid of a boiling pot nearly all the time between the heavier shocks. The trembling was like that of a ship struck by a heavy wave. This state of things lasted for a week, and then came the climax on a lovely April day.

The crust of the earth rose and sank like the sea in a storm; rocks were rent, mountains fell, buildings and their contents were shattered, trees swayed like reeds, animals were scared, and ran about demented; men thought that the judgment had come. The earth opened in thousands of places, the roads in Hilo cracked open, horses and their riders and people

afoot were thrown violently to the ground; it seemed as if the rocky ribs of the mountains and the granite walls and pillars of the earth were breaking up. At Kilauea the shocks were as frequent as the ticking of a watch. In Kau, south of Hilo, there were three hundred shocks in one day. An avalanche of red earth burst from the mountain-side, throwing rocks high into the air, swallowing up houses, trees, men and animals; and traveling three miles in as many minutes, burying a hamlet with thirty-one inhabitants and five hundred cattle.

The people of the valleys fled to the mountains, which themselves were splitting in all directions; and collecting on an elevated spot, with the earth reeling under them, they spent the night in prayer and singing. Looking towards the shore, they saw it sink, and at the same moment a wave, whose height was estimated at from forty to sixty feet, hurled itself upon the coast and receded five times, destroying whole villages, and even strong stone houses with a touch, engulfing forever forty-six people who had lingered too near the shore.

Boiling Fountains of Lava.

After this awful day the earthquakes still continued, and people putting their ears to the ground fancied they could hear the imprisoned lava sea rushing below. After traveling under ground for twenty miles, it burst forth with tremendous force. Four huge fountains boiled up, throwing crimson lava, and rocks weighing many tons, to a height of one thousand feet.

A gentleman, who was near the spot at the time, described the scene in these words: "From these great fountains to the sea flowed a rapid stream of red lava, rolling, rushing, and tumbling, like a swollen river, bearing along in its current large rocks that made the lava foam as it dashed down the precipice, and through the valley into the sea, surging and roaring throughout its length like a cataract, with a power and force perfectly indescribable. It was nothing less than a river of fire, eight hundred feet wide, and twenty deep, with a speed varying from ten to twenty-five miles an hour."

These descriptions are terrible enough. Considering the awful nature of the volcanic eruptions and earthquakes in Hawaii, however, the destruction of human life does not seem to have been so great as one would have feared would be the case. There were many marvelous escapes from impending death.

It was at Hawaii that our great navigator, Captain Cook, met with his death—a circumstance as much deplored by the Sandwich Islanders of the present day as by his own countrymen. To Captain Cook is accorded the honor of having discovered these islands, but there are native traditions of much earlier white visitors, and there is no doubt that Spanish navigators landed there in the sixteenth century. However, our first authentic information about them was brought by Captain Cook, who, with his two ships, the “Resolution” and “Discovery,” approached the two most westerly of the islands in January, 1778.

Great was the amazement of the first natives who went to examine the ships at what they saw. In those days English seamen used to wear cocked hats; these the Sandwich Islanders thought were a part of their heads, and they described the visitors as having heads “horned like the moon.” They stated, moreover, that they had fires burning at their mouths—no doubt meaning cigars—and that they took anything they wanted out of their bodies: such was the general idea conveyed by the civilized institution of pockets.

The Natives Thought their Visitors were Gods.

All these circumstances, combined with the strange language of the new-comers and the firing of some guns, made the natives come to the conclusion that their visitors were certainly gods. There was a belief in the islands at that time that a certain much-honored god called “Lono” had sailed away in a fit of jealousy and a triangular canoe, having first prophesied that he would return in after times on an island bearing coconut trees, swine and dogs. Captain Cook’s ships, so much larger than their own canoes and with tall masts, now appeared to the natives like floating islands with trees on them, and they made sure that “Lono” was returning to his own country.

When Captain Cook landed they came to the conclusion that he must be the great god himself. They prostrated themselves before him, and brought everything they could collect in the way of food as offerings. Captain Cook does not seem to have discouraged the idea that he was a god. He felt that it insured the safety of himself and his crew, and for a fortnight the ships remained at the islands, all living in clover. Then they sailed away.

Early the following year they returned, and Captain Cook landed, con-

fidant of another welcome on the western side of Hawaii. Here, his fame having spread from island to island, he was again received with divine honors, all the offerings the natives were accustomed to make to their gods being brought to him. The king visited him, and threw over him his own cloak, and presented him with pigs and fruit, concluding the interview by changing names with him—a ceremony which was considered the greatest possible sign of friendship and respect.

For a time all went well, as before, but gradually doubts of the divine origin of the visitors began to rise in the native mind. One of them died and was buried: this showed him to be only mortal like themselves. They began to grudge the supplies for the ships which they had to produce. A quarrel arose between the natives and the seamen, and some of the latter were pelted with stones. Soon after this the ships set sail; they were becalmed within sight of land for a day, and the king sent on board a parting present of pigs and vegetables.

Captain Cook Assassinated.

All might now have been well, but unhappily the ships encountered a heavy gale, and put back a week later into the Bay of Kealakeakua for repairs, and this time the welcome received by the Englishmen was not nearly as warm as before. Soon some thefts were committed by natives visiting the ships, who could no longer resist stealing pieces of iron, for which the Pacific islanders in those days craved far more than for gold. Then some shots were fired from the "Discovery" at a canoe. This quarrel was nominally made up, but soon after one of the "Discovery's" cutters moored to a buoy was stolen by a chief.

Captain Cook was determined that this boat should be restored, and, trusting to the veneration in which he was held, he went on shore, with the intention of bringing the king back with him and keeping him as a hostage till the stolen property, so valuable to him, should be given back. The king, it appears, would have consented to this plan, and walked to the shore with Captain Cook; but the islanders would not submit to what they considered not only a great indignity, but a great risk. They surrounded the king, and protested against his going on board the ships. His wife, too, entreated him to stay.

While the king hesitated there came a cry that the foreigners had fired at a canoe and killed a chief. Then the natives began to arm them-

selves with clubs, stones and spears. The king sat down, and Captain Cook walked towards his boat. As he walked a native attacked him with a spear, and Captain Cook turned and shot him with his double-barreled gun. Stones were then thrown, and the sailors in the boat, seeing this, fired on the people.

Captain Cook tried to stop this, but the noise was so great that he could not make himself understood; and meanwhile a chief approached from behind and stabbed him in the back. Captain Cook fell into the water and never spoke again. This is the English account of the death of the great navigator, as handed down from Captain King, his companion. The native account differs little from it, except in stating that the warrior-chief who attacked Captain Cook had no intention of killing him, still believing him to be the god "Lono" and immortal, but that, being struck, he gave a cry or groan, which dispelled the belief in his divinity, and the chief therefore killed him.

The remains of Captain Cook were subsequently restored to his friends, and he was buried at sea—with what sad and awe-stricken feelings one can well imagine—and the exploring ships sailed away from the bay without the guiding spirit which had brought them there. The work of the great navigator was done, and he lay at rest in the bosom of the mighty ocean whose mysteries he had so long loved to unravel. The fame of his adventures has filled the world.

For nearly a hundred years after Captain Cook's death the spot where he fell was only marked by a cocoa-nut stump set up on a bed of stones and broken lava, on which different visitors fixed sheets of copper with simple inscriptions recording the event. Within the last few years, however, a more suitable monument has been erected by some of his fellow-countrymen.

CHAPTER XLII.

COUNTRIES OF SOUTH AMERICA.

SOUTH AMERICA is a peninsula of triangular form. Its greatest length, from north to south, is 4,500 miles; its greatest breadth, 3,200, and it covers an area of 6,500,000 square miles, about three-fourths of which lie between the tropics, and the other fourth in the temperate zone. The continent is noted for its rivers, forests, mountains, minerals and arable soil.

Venezuela.

Columbus on his first voyage discovered the Paria coast on the 31st of July, 1498. The next year the whole Venezuelan coast was skirted by Ojeda and Amerigo Vespucci, and the name "Little Venice" was given to an Indian village built on piles (as is common) on the shores of Lake Maracaybo; this is the origin of "Venezuela," the name now of the whole country.

In 1527 the territory of Coro was pledged by Charles V. to the Welsers of Augsburg, whose governors and adventurers had eyes and thoughts only for gold and the fabled El Dorado. In 1558 the Crown resumed possession; Caracas was founded in 1567, and in 1578 became the seat of government. During the 17th century the attentions of the Crown were limited to extracting as much revenue from the colony as possible, while the people entered earnestly on agriculture and stock-raising in pursuit of a livelihood.

But the next century saw the beginning of troubles. The government insisted on all trade being carried on with Spain alone, and ultimately with only one city—first Seville, then till 1778, Cadiz. Legitimate commerce dwindled away, and smuggling by the Dutch and English alone interfered to keep down the enormous prices of European goods. The first revolt occurred in 1749; other outbreaks kept the land in a ferment, until in 1810 the revolution began which ended with the independence of the country, and the withdrawal of the royal forces in 1821.

From 1870 to 1877 the "Illustrious American," General Guzman Blanco, was first dictator and then president, and did much to rescue the country from its embarrassments. Joaquin Crespo is the present ruler. There has never been any agreement between Great Britain and Venezuela as to the boundary line between the latter country and British Guiana. The Venezuelan Government represented to ours at Washington that Great Britain was disposed to make encroachments and claim territory that did not by right belong to her.

In December, 1895, President Cleveland sent a strong message to Congress on this subject, in which he took occasion to assert in very plain terms the Monroe Doctrine. The message was received with great favor, and a commission of investigation was appointed by Congress. For a time there was loud talk of war between Great Britain and the United States, but wiser counsels prevailed, and Great Britain furnished the commission with all information in its possession which could be of service in reaching a just and equitable conclusion, satisfactory to all parties.

Brazil.

Along the sea coast and banks of some of the rivers, besides some extensive tracts in Minas-Geraes, the country has been brought under cultivation; but by far the greater portion of the surface remains in a state of nature. The dense forests furnish almost every variety of useful and ornamental timber, more than one hundred species of palms, logwood, mahogany, Brazil and numerous other dye-woods, with sassafras, sarsaparilla, ipecacuanha, and a great variety of other drugs. Cocoa is an indigenous product; maize, sugar, coffee, cotton, rice, wheat and tobacco, have been introduced by European culture.

The animal as well as the vegetable products here present the greatest diversity. The diamond mines of Minas-Geraes are at present the most productive known. Other gems, and large quantities of gold, besides silver, copper, iron and platinum, are among the mineral riches of the same province. Manufactures in Brazil are confined to cotton-weaving, tanning, and the production of goods of primary necessity.

Brazil was discovered on the 26th of January, 1500, by the Spaniards under Pinzon, one of the companions of Columbus. In the same year the Portuguese fitted out an expedition to follow up the successful discoveries of Vasco de Gama in the East, and finally took possession of the country

in 1640. In 1808 the royal family of Portugal was expelled by the French and took refuge in Brazil, and the first act of Dom Joao VI., was to open Brazilian ports to foreign commerce. Other wise and liberal measures greatly stimulated the growth of the country. In 1822 he was succeeded by his son, who was proclaimed and crowned Emperor as Dom Pedro I. His reign, however, was not a fortunate one. Vexed with the opposition he encountered he abdicated in 1831 in favor of his eldest son Dom Pedro II.

After a brief government by regencies, Dom Pedro II. was crowned in 1840. He proved to be a wise and liberal ruler and was popular with his people until the revolutionary disturbances of 1895, when he fled to Europe, where he soon afterward died. The population of Brazil is 14,000,000, and a good deal of enterprise is shown in developing the resources of the country and fostering foreign trade.

Peru.

Peru is, for the most part, of igneous formation and contains a number of active volcanoes, that of Omati being the principal. Earthquakes are frequent and violent. Lying off the coast near Callao are the Chincha Islands, which, with those of Guadafu and Macabo, yield guano in vast quantities. Agriculture is much neglected, although the land is productive of excellent coffee, cocoa, cotton; besides drugs, tobacco, pimento, dyestuffs, etc. The chief articles of exports are, after guano, gold, silver, wine, sugar, quinine, wool, etc.

When Pizarro, at the head of a small band of Spanish adventurers, first landed on the shores of Peru, 1532, he found it governed by sovereigns called Incas, who were looked up to by their subjects with awe and veneration; and the inhabitants were distinguished for their mild and polished manners. But the avarice of their European conquerors led to scenes of blood and desolation; the last Inca, Atahualpa, was put to death, and the Peruvians became the victims of the most unheard-of cruelties.

After being for nearly three centuries a Spanish viceroyalty, Peru, in 1821, along with the rest of Hispano-America, achieved its independence. In 1864 the Spaniards seized the Chincha Islands until Peru should make reparation for injuries inflicted upon Spanish subjects, and held them till 1866, when Peru agreed to pay an indemnity of 60,000,000 reals. This treaty was not ratified, and an alliance entered into with Chili. After war for nearly three years, peace was restored in 1869 by the intervention of

the United States. In 1881 war broke out between Peru and Chili, resulting in the defeat of Peru, and the occupation of portions of the country by the Chilean army.

On June 3, 1886, General Caceres, who had gallantly defended his country against the Chilians from first to last, became Constitutional President of Peru. His policy was retrenchment and the protection of the Indian population. Payment of interest of the foreign debt had become impossible. General Caceres served his term of office, and was peacefully succeeded as President, on August 10, 1890, by Colonel Don Remijio Morales Bermudez. Peru is thus slowly recovering from the disastrous effects of a great calamity. The natural resources of the country are being developed, a greater interest is taken in public affairs, and with a more stable government, supported by the popular will, there is reason to predict a bright future for Peru.

Chili.

The backbone of this country is found in the Great Cordillerras of the Andes, here attaining an average height of 14,000 feet, many of whose peaks are volcanic, notably that of Aconcagua (the highest Andean summit), which has an altitude of 23,910 feet above the sea. The coast-line presents steep and rocky shores, broken into by some excellent harbors. The rivers and lagoons are so small as to be undeserving of mention. Climate healthy, taken, as a whole; a scarcity of rain is, however, often felt. Earthquakes are of common occurrence; the last great shock doing much damage in 1868.

Chili is one bed of metals: silver, gold, lead, and iron are found largely and worked; copper, however, is the principal resource of the national wealth, and is mined by Englishmen on an immense scale. Sulphur, antimony, zinc, manganese, alum, nitre, salt, coal, are other mineral items which influence a large exportation. The soil is of varying fertility, fattening most towards the south and the foothills of the Andes. Many hard woods are made useful instead of iron, and the fruits of the temperate zone thrive excellently. The Chileños have thriven greatly since their emancipation from Spanish rule: the bulk of commercial transactions is carried on with Great Britain.

Valparaiso is the chief port, Santiago is the capital; Valdivia, Concepcion, and Talca are among the largest and finest towns. The government is formed on the constitution of 1833, and consists of three departments—

the executive, legislative and judicial. The first is in the hands of a president, whose tenure of office is five years; the legislative consists of a Senate and Chamber of Deputies. The state religion is the Roman Catholic; other religions are tolerated, but their public exercise is not allowed. Chili, before the Spanish irruption, belonged to the Incas of Peru; in 1535-1540 its whole extent, excepting only Araucania, was conquered by the lieutenants of Pizarro. It thenceforward became a Spanish colony, until 1817, when, after a seven years' war with Spain, the victory of Maypú, gained by General San Martin, secured the independence of the country. At present Chili is the most flourishing of all the Hispaño-American republics.

The temperature of Chili is remarkably even and pleasant, and always cool at nights. In the south it is dry for about eight months in the year, and rainy the other four. Vines grow well on the hillsides, and are a source of large income. The Andes are almost everywhere visible, covered with perpetual snow. There are many volcanic peaks, mostly extinct. Chili is subject to frequent shocks of earthquake, and occasionally to destructive tornadoes. The railway system of Chili is well developed, and in the northern provinces there are several mineral railways belonging to English companies. The Constitution of Chili is republican, and based upon that of the United States.

United States of Colombia.

Formerly known as New Granada, the United States of Colombia is one of the most progressive of the South American Republics. It lies in the extreme northwest angle of the continent. On the north is the Caribbean Sea; on the northeast and east, Venezuela; on the southeast and south, Brazil and Ecuador; and on the west, the Pacific and Costa Rica. Its extreme length from north to south is 1,000 miles, and the extreme breadth from east to west, 760; on the Isthmus of Panama, however, the breadth is but 28 miles. It has an area estimated at from 480,000 to 520,000 square miles. The population by the last census was 2,880,633. Of these, rather less than a million are whites, and about an equal number have a large admixture of Indian blood. The remainder are civilized Indians, mulattoes, savage Indians, and the various crosses between whites, Indians and negroes.

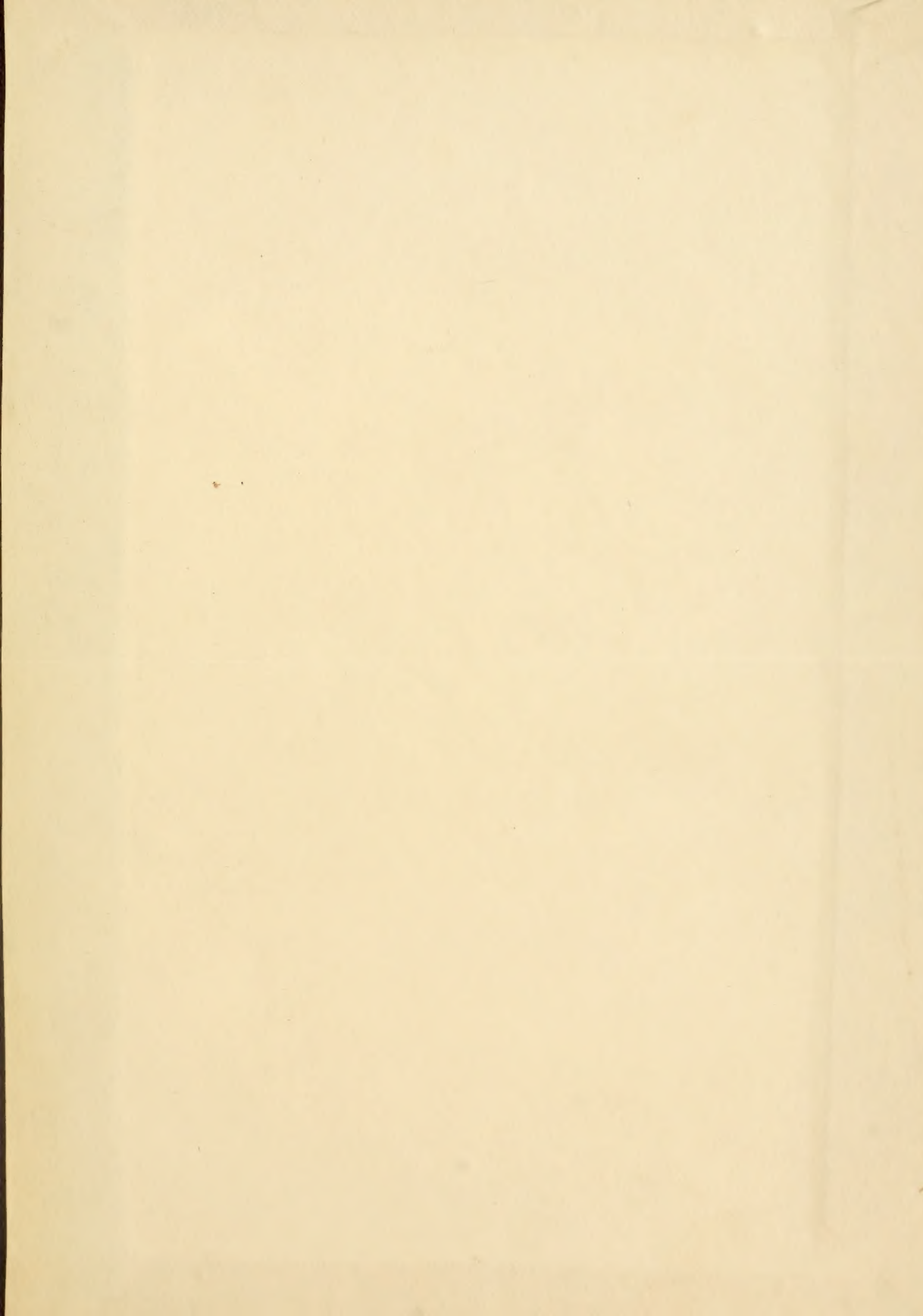
The form of government established by the constitution of 1863 resembles in many respects that of the United States. The president is

elected for two years. The Senate consists of three members from each of the States, and the Lower House of Delegates from the several States, each sending a member for every 50,000 inhabitants. Each State has its own legislative and executive officer.

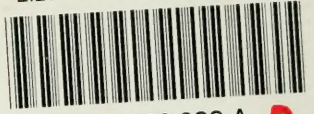
Central America.

Under the head of Central America the countries embraced are the Republics of Guatemala, San Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua and Costa Rica. They declared their independence September 21, 1821, and separated from the Mexican confederation July 21, 1823. The States made a treaty of union between themselves March 21, 1847. There has been among them since much anarchy and bloodshed, aggravated greatly by the irruption of American filibusters under Kenny and Walker, 1854-5.

In January, 1863, a war began between Guatemala (afterward joined by Nicaragua) and San Salvador (afterward supported by Honduras). The latter were defeated at Santa Rosa June 16th, and San Salvador was taken October 26th; the President of San Salvador, Barrios, fled, and Carrera, the dictator of Guatemala, became predominant over the confederacy. General Barrios, President of Guatemala, attempts the union of the five States, himself to be dictator, opposed by all except Honduras, February. He is defeated and killed in a prolonged battle at Chalchuapa, April 2d; peace with the States signed April 16th, 1885.



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